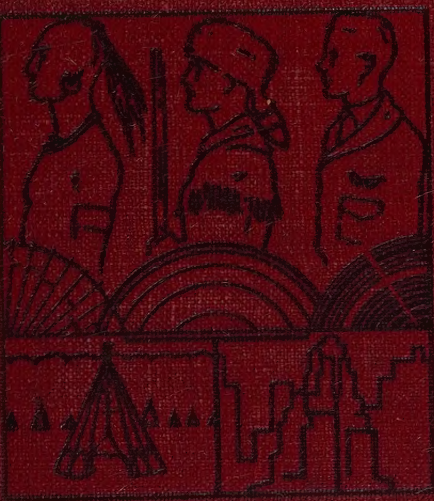
A HISTORY
OF
AMERICAN CIVILIZATION

HAROLD RUGG



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THE RUGG SOCIAL SCIENCE COURSE

THE READING BOOKS

VOLUME I · An Introduction to American Civilization

VOLUME II · Changing Civilizations in the Modern World

VOLUME III · A History of American Civilization: Economic and Social

VOLUME IV · A History of American Government and Culture

VOLUME V · An Introduction to Problems of American Culture

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VOLUME IV · Teacher's Guide for *A History of American Government and Culture*

VOLUME V · Teacher's Guide for *An Introduction to Problems of American Culture*

VOLUME VI · Teacher's Guide for *Changing Governments and Changing Cultures*

R92

A HISTORY OF AMERICAN CIVILIZATION

Economic and Social

BY

HAROLD RUGG
PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

GINN AND COMPANY
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PREFACE

A History of American Civilization: Economic and Social is the third of the textbooks in the Rugg Social-Science Course. It is followed by the fourth book of the series: *A History of American Government and Culture.* Together the two volumes comprise a comprehensive history of the United States in its geographic setting. This present volume deals with the land, and with industrial and commercial history and their effect upon American society; the next one, with government and other aspects of cultural history.

The two volumes have been prepared to help young Americans to understand the chief modes of living in their own country. These modes of living — in their historical and geographic setting — are presented in the form of thought-provoking problems in the *Pupil's Workbook of Directed Study* for *A History of American Civilization.* The *Reading Book* and the *Workbook* should be used in conjunction with each other.

What is this Course in the Social Studies?

These textbooks with their accompanying *Workbooks* will introduce young Americans to world civilizations and their historical development. The first volume, *An Introduction to American Civilization*, is devoted chiefly to a study of economic life in the United States today. The second volume, *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World,* introduces the pupil to life in other lands. It considers especially the great industrial nations, the changing agricultural countries, and the interrelation of the two. The third and fourth volumes, as stated, present the historical development and geographic setting of the United States. Accompanying each is a corresponding *Pupil's Workbook of Directed Study.* These four volumes are followed by two others, dealing with contemporary problems of American life.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF INTRODUCING YOUTH TO AN UNDERSTANDING OF CONTEMPORARY CIVILIZATION

The author firmly believes that young Americans can be given an appreciation of the significant contemporary problems of living together. Current conditions in America throw into sharp relief the critical need of teaching our youth to understand American life and its relation to the modern world. Our schools are confronted with the difficult task of educating pupils to become informed, thinking citizens. During the past 150 years the rapid development of industrial civilization has produced problems of living together that baffle even the keenest adult minds.

It is of the utmost importance that schools bend every effort to introduce our young people to the chief conditions and problems which will confront them as citizens of the world. That is the essential purpose of this new unified course in the social studies.

THE MATERIALS ARE BASED UPON THE FINDINGS OF SPECIALISTS

The foundation of this new course is a series of studies of the basic modes of living and the problems of modern life, the great movements through which institutions and problems have evolved, and the chief concepts and principles which, as history has proved, lie at the roots of living together.

Who knows best what these great institutions, problems, and trends are? Specialists on the frontier of thought who see society from a height, who detect its trends and the long-time movement of its affairs. From the mature thought of established students of modern life and its historical development, therefore, instead of from the single judgments of the textbook maker, the skeleton of this course has been designed. It is based upon nine years of investigational work. In that time thirteen research studies of what to teach have been made.[1]

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[1] See John A. Hockett's *The Determination of the Major Social Problems of American Life* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University) and Harold Rugg and John A. Hockett's *Objective Studies in Map Location* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University). A complete account of all the studies upon which this course rests will also be presented in the forthcoming *Psychology and Teaching of the Social Studies.*

A UNIFIED COURSE IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Why one general course rather than the separate subjects of history, geography, and civics? Because the chief aim is to understand modern life and how it came to be. To understand any institution or condition of life today the mind must utilize facts, meanings, generalizations, and historical movements that in the past have been set up in separate school subjects. For example, to understand the westward movement of the American people one must see in close relationship the tide of immigration across the continent; the blazing of trails; the evolution of new land and waterways; the rapid development of new types of transportation; constantly changing forms of social life; the rise of cities behind the advancing frontier; the influence of mountains, deserts, climate, rivers, and soil upon travel, transportation, and communication; and where and how people live. All these factors must be tied closely together in their natural relationships. Hence the necessity of combining them into one general course instead of teaching them as separate subjects — history, geography, civics, economics, government, etc. In constructing this course one question has constantly been in the foreground of our thinking: What facts, historical movements, meanings, and principles do young people need to study together to understand the modern world?

In *A History of American Civilization*, therefore, historical, geographic, economic, and other materials are studied *in close relationship*. Whenever history is needed to understand the present, history is presented. If geographic relationships are needed to throw light upon contemporary problems, those geographic relationships are incorporated. The same thing has been done with economic and social facts and principles.

This has *not* caused a reduction in the amount of history or of geography included in the course. Rather, it has produced a sharp increase in the amount of these subjects in the curriculum, and in addition has added to the curriculum a wealth of new material. Comparisons of the amount of history and geography in these four *Reading Books* with that of conventional textbooks in these subjects *should be based on a study of the total series and not on any one book.*

THE USE OF THE DRAMATIC EPISODE

The readers of this book will encounter a second novel characteristic: *the frequent use of dramatic episodes.* If young people are to be brought to an understanding of our complicated civilization, it must be chiefly through the medium of words. Hence the imperative need of dramatizing the past and present story of the important modern civilizations and their relations to one another. In this course each topic is illustrated by vivid episodes and by a wealth of maps, graphs, and pictorial material far in excess of their present use in textbooks. The substitution of this vivid episodical treatment for the encyclopedic one which characterizes many of our current school histories and geographies has necessitated a marked increase in the volume of reading material.

"LEARNING BY DOING": THE *PUPIL'S WORKBOOK OF DIRECTED STUDY*

The very center of this course in the social studies is the *Workbook.* The chief goal of the social studies is active and intelligent participation in American civilization and tolerant understanding of other civilizations. To guarantee the attainment of this goal the school must organize its work around a core of dynamic pupil activities. *Young people grow in understanding only by participating actively in the study of the society around them.* Even to the present day the work in the social studies has consisted too much of memoriter recitation from the contents of encyclopedic textbooks in history, geography, and civics.

The essence of this new course in social studies is a succession of pupil activities, dynamic and thought-provoking. Each problem of this course is an organized scheme of things for the pupil to do. Each unit compels him to find the answer to one or more important questions. The course, as presented in the *Workbook,* therefore, constantly confronts the pupil with stimulating problems, insight into each of which is important for an adequate understanding of the problems of the modern world. Hence the *Workbook* is the very core of the course, and the *Reading Book* has been constructed, unit by unit, in close conjunction with it.

PLANNED REPETITION

The fourth characteristic of this course is the carefully planned recurrence of important concepts, generalizations, and historical themes in varied settings. One of the weaknesses of current school courses in history, geography, and civics is lack of planned repetition. In the present course this defect has been remedied by designing a carefully planned scheme of repetition. In preparing each topic the outstanding concepts, generalizations, and themes that an educated mind should understand have been charted in advance. Episodes, narratives, statistical and graphic exhibits, pictures, and maps have been selected with the need for the illustration of these items clearly in mind. Hence the student will encounter the important meanings, principles, and movements over and over again, but constantly presented in new and varied settings.

HUNDREDS OF SCHOOLS HAVE COÖPERATED IN THE PREPARATION OF THIS COURSE, 1922–1929

How can one feel sure that this course, which on superficial examination may appear to be difficult, is within the comprehension and ability of the pupil?

It has passed through three experimental editions — the first was used in mimeographed form, 1921–1922; the second consisted of printed books used in 1922–1923 in more than 100 school systems; the third consisted of completely reconstructed printed books (known as the *Social Science Pamphlets*) used in more than 300 school systems, 1923–1929.

This series of books could not have been developed successfully without the coöperation of a large number of public and private schools. In more than 40 states, hundreds of schools have purchased and tried out under our direction copies of the experimental editions. Over 600,000 copies of the pamphlets were used by pupils from 1922 to 1929.

Furthermore, this present book has been written with a much simpler vocabulary than was used even in the third experimental edition. A scientific analysis of the completed manuscript shows that it falls within the comprehension of *sixth-grade* pupils.

Every kind of community in the United States — small towns, medium-sized cities, large cities — has made experimental use of these books. More than 50,000 tests taken by pupils have been returned to us for examination. The judgments of more than 1000 teachers have been obtained, concerning needed revisions. Many round-table conferences have been held with small groups of teachers using the experimental editions. The theory of the course has been discussed with hundreds of audiences in the past seven years. Furthermore, careful measurements have proved that several thousand pupils studying the experimental edition achieved a markedly superior understanding of modern life and a distinctly higher ability in thinking about it than a group of 1500 pupils who had studied under similar conditions the conventional history-geography-civics courses.

THE COURSE IS BASED UPON AN ELABORATE PROGRAM OF RESEARCH[1]

Twenty-two thorough investigations have been made dealing with the following topics:

1. Thirteen studies of what to teach of the problems of contemporary life, of the chief trends of civilization, and of the central concepts and principles which educated minds use in thinking about them.
2. Three scientific studies of grade placement of curriculum materials and of the development of pupil's abilities.
3. Six studies of learning and of the organization of curriculum materials, which have also contributed to the arrangement of the material in this course.

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[1] Of the studies upon which this course is based the following have already been published: C. O. Matthews, *Grade Placement of Curriculum Materials in the Social Studies* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University); Harold Rugg and John A. Hockett, *Objective Studies in Map Location* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University); Hyman Meltzer, *Children's Social Concepts* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University); Earle Rugg, *Studies in Curriculum Construction in the Social Studies* (State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado); "The Social Studies in the Elementary and Secondary School," Part II of the Twenty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education (Public School Publishing Company); Neal Billings, *A Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Science Curriculum* (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University).

The Need for a Large Allotment of Time for the Social Studies

Finally, no adequate course in the social studies can be developed successfully in the time now allotted to it in most public and private schools. Our elaborate program of research and our seven years of work with experimental editions prove conclusively that *more* than 60 minutes of daily class time must be devoted to the social studies in order that young people may obtain even a partial understanding of modern civilization. The social-studies course should be the intellectual core of the school curriculum. It is earnestly hoped that schools will provide adequately for this central core by allotting to it a large amount of time.

An Important Caution about Accuracy in Using Facts

In the course there are many statements of fact concerning population, areas of countries and regions, amounts of coal, iron, and other raw materials produced, numbers of miles of railroad track, etc. These facts are necessary for an understanding of modern civilizations. We have tried to make sure that the facts are stated accurately. One difficulty has been encountered, however: that even the most reliable sources from which the statistics and other facts have been selected,— for example, the census publications of the United States government, the Statistical Abstract of the United States, the Statesman's Year-Book, etc.,— do not always agree. It was necessary, therefore, to choose among them those statements which appear to us to be most accurate.

The reader will note the frequent use of round numbers in statements of number of inhabitants, amounts of production, distances, areas, etc. In most cases it is not important to remember the exact figures; it *is* important, however, to obtain a correct impression from the use of the facts. Hence approximate numbers and estimates have been frequently used. The student should constantly ask himself, How reliable are these facts? He should learn that in the past 100 years the scientific way of doing things has made our records more and more accurate. Nevertheless, much improvement in this matter is still needed. In spite of great care in checking the facts that have been given, the reader may find instances in which correction should be made.

In Acknowledgment

This enterprise could not have been developed without the coöperative support and friendly and critical advice of many persons. First, there are several thousand progressive administrators and teachers who contributed criticisms and suggestions. From 1922 to 1929 inclusive these educational leaders gave unsparingly of their energy to the experimental trial of the tentative editions of these books. By their courage and vision in utilizing novel materials in the social sciences, they have put the children of American schools as well as myself in their debt.

Second, there is the administration of Teachers College, Columbia University, and of the Lincoln School. The American children who will use these materials owe a debt of gratitude to the deans of Teachers College and the directors of the Lincoln School for permitting and encouraging the development of this course by experimental methods.

I have acknowledged with pleasure in the body of the text many instances of coöperation from publishing houses who permitted quotations from their publications and the reproduction of illustrative materials. Almost without exception requests for coöperation of this character have been cordially granted.

Without the unfailing encouragement of my friends John R. Clark, Marshall Dunn, George Nugent, R. P. Nugent, Jr., and Jesse H. Newlon, it would often have been difficult to carry on.

I have listed on a following page the names of the members of the research and editorial staff who contributed studies and materials to the various editions of these books. In the preparation of this edition, however, several of my associates have given such conspicuous and loyal assistance that I wish to acknowledge their contribution more specifically. First, Gertrude M. White, who has carried the burden of office management during the past four years; second, Joan Walker Coyne, who gave unsparingly of her time and energy to the reconstruction of *A History of*

American Civilization; third, my colleague James E. Mendenhall, collaborator in the preparation of the *Pupil's Workbooks of Directed Study* and *Teacher's Guides*, who also reviewed critically the manuscript of each of the *Reading Books*. Finally, I wish to render special acknowledgment for the valuable editorial services of Frances M. Foster, assistant in the preparation of final manuscripts and in the reading of proof from 1923 to 1927 inclusive and from 1928 to date. The present form of *Reading Books*, *Workbooks*, and *Teacher's Guides* owes more than I can measure to her editorial insight and constant labor.

This statement of my indebtedness should not be permitted to close without referring to the unsparing efforts of the staff of Ginn and Company to produce a practicable, attractive, and teachable body of materials. But especially I wish to express my appreciation for the encouragement and support given by Messrs. Charles H. Thurber, Henry H. Hilton, and Burdette R. Buckingham.

HAROLD RUGG

NEW YORK

The following research and editorial staff contributed studies or materials utilized in the various editions of this series of books.

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A HISTORY OF AMERICAN CIVILIZATION

UNIT I

EUROPEANS FIND THE RED MAN'S CONTINENT

CHAPTER I

THE RED MAN'S CONTINENT

A Glimpse of our Country in 1492

On every side stretched vast unbroken forest. A bird song broke the silence. Dry fallen leaves rustled as the scurrying feet of a small animal pattered over them.

Among the tree trunks a moving form appeared. A half-dressed man moved noiselessly along a narrow forest path. His lithe, straight body glided swiftly. He paused for a moment in a splash of sunlight which fell upon the trail. Then he passed, hard muscles rippling smoothly beneath his copper-brown skin. In a moment he was lost to sight among the tree trunks. The quiet of the forest, scarcely disturbed by his passage, settled again. The only movement was the flight of a bird from tree to tree.

This was North America. The year was 1492. From the far north, where winter lives almost the year round, to the far south, where summer never dies, silence brooded over most of the land. From the coastal plain of the Atlantic to the shores of the Pacific the earth lay almost undisturbed.

Were there no men to break this silence?

There were, indeed. Along the shores of the oceans and the Great Lakes men had built their homes. Along the river banks, on the open plains, and in the quiet valleys, thin threads of smoke rose from many fires. Men with copper-colored skins, whom we know as red men or Indians, had built these homes. Here and there over the broad continent of North America, encampments, villages, even towns, were thinly scattered. Connecting the settlements of the Indians, beaten trails ran through woods, over hills, and along river valleys. These were used by friendly and unfriendly visitors alike.

Although the Indians had lived in North America for many centuries, they had changed the vast continent very little. They had not dug for minerals in the earth. They had not cut down the forests. Some of the tribes cultivated the earth, raising corn, beans, potatoes, pumpkins, and squash. Others lived on the meat of the buffalo, which they killed on the plains. But most of them lived generation after generation in the same ways as their fathers had lived. So they kept the continent nearly as they found it. It remained for the white man to build factories, power stations, stores, railroads, steamboats — all that goes to make up modern civilization.

The Indians of Central and South America, however, in the warm and tropical climates, had changed their continent in many ways. They had built cities in which were strong, lasting homes of stone and concrete. Paved roads connected these towns. Gold, silver, and other metals were mined and made into lovely ornaments.

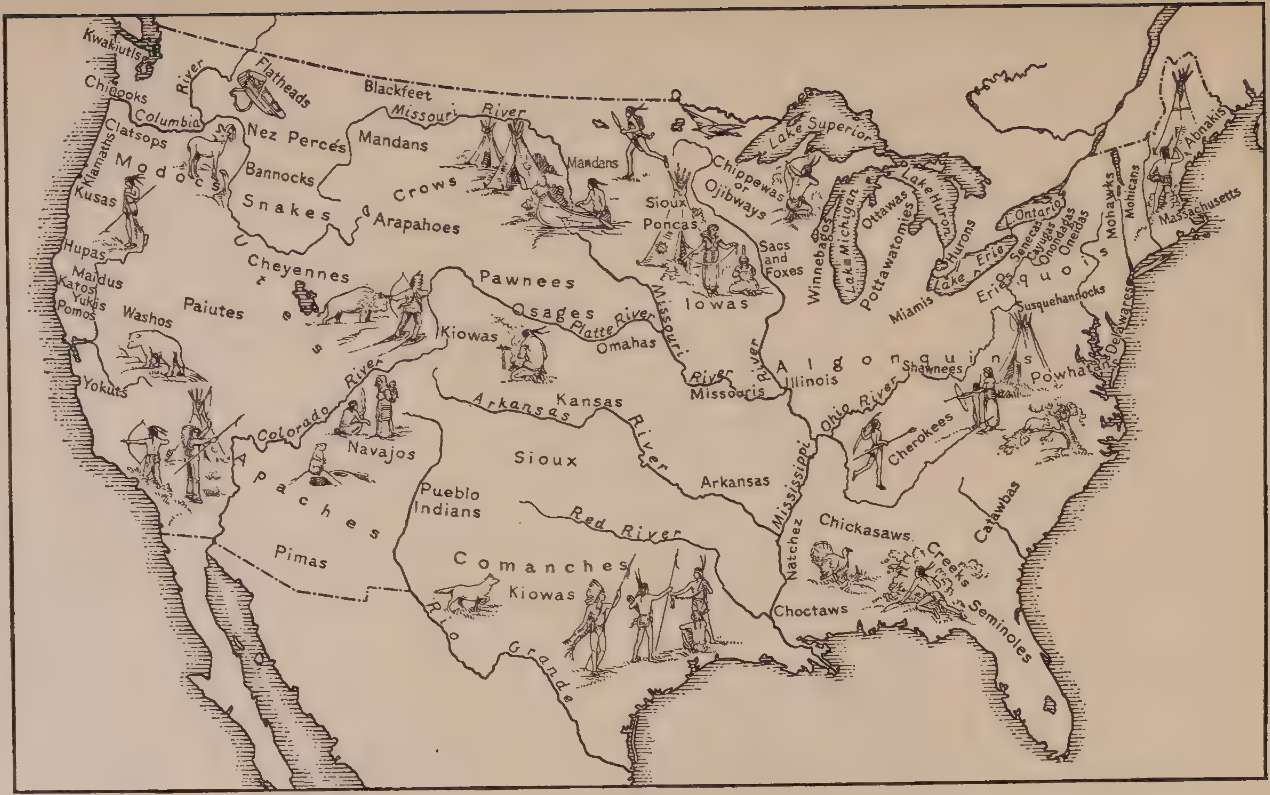
These Indians of the Americas were not numbered by the hundred millions, as are the white men today. In all the vast reach of land from Canada to Mexico, there were no more people than make up the population of one of our smaller states at present. Although no accurate counts of the Indians were kept, students have estimated that there were barely 500,000 red men in all the territory which is now called the United States. In all North America there were hardly more than a million Indians. In the region from Mexico to the southern part of South America there were probably 10,000,000 more. Altogether, some 11,000,000 or 12,000,000 people — about as many as are in the state of New York -- occupied this vast stretch of territory.

THE INDIAN PEOPLE WERE DIVIDED INTO MANY TRIBES AND LIVED IN MANY DIFFERENT WAYS

As we said before, Indians were scattered through many parts of North and South America, and they had developed several different kinds of civilizations.

Some of them in North America — for example, the Iroquois and the Creeks along the Atlantic coastal plain — lived in log houses or bark huts roofed with thatch.

Others. farther west in the great level Mississippi Valley,


Kwakiutls
Chinooks
Columbia
River
Flatheads
Blackfeet
Missouri
River
Clatsops
Klamaths
Modocs
Kusas
Nez Percés
Bannocks
Mandans
Snakes
Crows
Arapahoes
Mandans
Hupas
Maidus
Katos
Yukis
Pomos
Washos
Paiutes
Utes
Cheyennes
Pawnees
Osages
Platte River
Omahas
Kiowas
Missouri
River
Sioux
Poncas
Chippewas or Ojibways
Lake Superior
Sacs and Foxes
Iowas
Winnebagos
Lake Michigan
Ottawas
Pottawatomies
Lake Huron
Hurons
Lake Erie
Ontario
Senecas
Cayugas
Onondagas
Oneidas
Mohawks
Mohicans
Abnakis
Massachusetts
Iroquois
Miamis
Erie
Susquehannocks
Delawares
Powhatans
Algonquins
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Illinois
Missouris
River
Yokuts
Colorado
River
Kansas
Arkansas
River
Navajos
Apaches
Sioux
Pueblo Indians
Arkansas
Mississippi
Ohio River
Cherokees
Catawbas
Pimas
Red River
Comanches
Kiowas
Rio Grande
Natchez
Chickasaws
Creeks
Seminoles
Choctaws

FIG. 1. Where the Indians lived before the white man came

lived a wandering life, pitching their skin tepees wherever they found animals and plants to live upon.

Still others, the Pueblo Indians (of Arizona and New Mexico), built more permanent homes of sun-baked clay among the cliffs of the plateaus in the southern Rockies. In California, which was the end of the earth to the Indians, homes were more primitive. They were but shallow round holes dug in the earth and roofed with mud and twigs. Finally, in the far Northwest, near Puget Sound, the tribes built their homes of rough planks.

In Mexico and Central and South America lived the Mayas, Aztecs, and Incas. These, as we said, lived in cities and towns which had roads and streets connecting them. They made temples and other buildings of stone and had developed very advanced kinds of civilizations, indeed.

Thus we see how scattered were these Indian tribes and how varied their ways of living!

Some Glimpses of Ways of Living among the Indians

By 1492 each group of tribes had adopted different ways of building homes, making clothing, and finding food according to the climate, temperature, and rainfall of the region in which they made their homes. There is not space in this book to illustrate the ways of living of all the Indian tribes, for there were too many. We can, however, tell you something of how typical groups of tribes lived and of how their civilizations were influenced by the geography of the region in which they were settled.

Seven of these groups will be considered:

1. Tribes like the Iroquois, of the north Atlantic plain.
2. Tribes like the Creeks, of the south Atlantic plain.
3. Siouan tribes like the Blackfeet, the Pawnees, the Omahas, and the Mandans, who lived in the Mississippi Valley and on the great Western plains.
4. Tribes like the Kwakiutl Indians, of the Pacific Northwest.
5. The mixed tribes of the California coast.
6. Pueblo tribes of the Southwest.
7. More highly civilized groups, like the Mayas, Aztecs, and Incas, who lived in Mexico and Central and South America.

1. Life among the Iroquois who lived in the valley of the Mohawk River

Night had fallen. A cold November wind pushed against the stout walls of the Long House. A woman went to each doorway and pulled tightly together the skin curtains. She was shutting out the "Bear-Walker" and other evil spirits.

This woman was the head matron, a most important person in the tribe. She it was who owned much wealth, which had come to her from her ancestors. She it was who would have the right to choose a new chief should the tribal head be killed in battle.

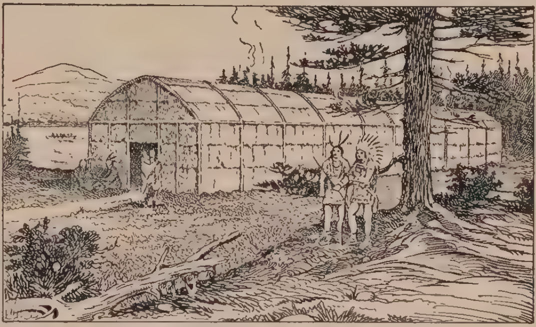

FIG. 2. An Iroquois Long House

The old woman then squatted by her fire in the center of the Long House and heaped sticks upon it. It began to burn brightly. Soon the people of the Long House came to the matron's fire. Some left their compartments, which were ranged along the central hall like stalls in a stable. Others left their fires, which were in the middle of the hall. They gathered about the old woman.

Gradually their fires faded from sight, and all but the matron's fire had died. The red central fire cast shadows upon the faces of the women who were squatting on one side, gossiping. Opposite them sat the men, discussing the day's hunt.

Chief Large Feather rose to address the men. His bright dark eyes roamed over the faces of the warriors. He was the bravest and the mightiest of them. He was a sachem. He it was who represented the Iroquois at the council of the sachems, which met in the lodges of the Onondagas. He had just returned, and the warriors waited to hear the outcome of the council.

Chief Large Feather reported that all was well in the Long Houses of the Five Nations. When he had finished, one boy who had eagerly listened spoke timidly. He begged Large Feather to tell again the story of how Hiawatha carried out his plan to unite the Five Nations.[1] Large Feather told again of the coming of Hiawatha, their great leader — of his boyhood and of his young manhood. He concluded:

"And Hiawatha called together the people of the Five Nations who dwelt in this great valley[2] and he said to them:

"'We have met, members of many nations, many of you a great distance from your homes. We have met to provide for our common safety. Alone we can no longer oppose our foes from the north. They will prove our destruction unless we unite as a common band of brothers. Thus only can our homes be safe.

"'You, Onondagas, shall be keepers of the wampum. In your main town the sachems of the Five Nations shall meet. You shall choose fourteen sachems to represent you. Your chief will be head sachem.

"'You, Mohawks, under the shadow of the great trees whose roots sink deep into the earth, and whose branches spread over vast country, you shall be the second nation. You are warlike and mighty and you shall have ten sachems.

"'You, Oneidas, who recline your bodies against the everlasting stone that cannot be moved, you shall be the third nation, because you give good council. You shall have ten sachems.

"'You, Cayugas, whose home is in the dark forest, you shall be the fourth nation, because you are cunning hunters. You shall have ten sachems.

"'And you, Senecas, who live in the open country and possess much wisdom, shall be the doorkeepers. You shall have two of your warriors as the great leaders of the Five Nations.

"'You five great and powerful nations must unite and have one common interest, and no foe shall subdue us. If we unite, the Great Spirit will smile upon us. Brothers, these are the words of Hiawatha. Let them sink deep into your hearts.'

"And so the Five Nations have dwelt together in peace," continued Large Feather. "Fifty sachems have ruled over them.

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[1] Little is actually known of Hiawatha. Even the date when the first federation of the Iroquois tribes took place is in doubt, but the federation was already at least one hundred years old when the first white settlements were made.

[2] The valley of the Mohawk River, in northern New York State.

We are called the People of the Long House, for not only do our people live in Long Houses like this one, but we live in one great Long House. For the five tribes dwell in a row along the rich Mohawk River valley. From the great river toward the rising sun, to the Great Lakes toward the setting sun, reaches the great Long House. Thus are we one people. In times of peace we raise maize, beans, and squash in our gardens. We hunt in the forests that our women and children may not want meat. In times of war with our Northern foes, our warriors spread fear through the villages of the cowards. This we do that there may one day be peace among all men, that all may be People of the Long House."[1]

Large Feather's story was finished. His words had taken hold upon all the children. So it was that they learned of the deeds of the great chief, Hiawatha. So it was, also, that they learned how best to keep peace by uniting with other peoples.

2. The Indians of the Southeast

South of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi lived many other Indian tribes. Their ways of living were somewhat alike, but they had not learned to unite like the Iroquois. They had only a loose sort of union. However, they had developed more permanent ways of living in villages and towns. Their homes were of wood and bark, substantial and fairly lasting. Corn, potatoes, beans, rice, and tobacco were grown on their fertile plots of ground.

Let us have a brief glimpse of a Creek village as it might have been in 1492.

It was harvest time. The little lad, Red Feather, ran from his home to the river bank and hurried to meet his father, whom he could see paddling in the stern of the birch-bark canoe. The canoe grounded, and the father stepped out, holding in the air three fat tree squirrels. He and Red Feather started toward the town.

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[1] Adapted from Thomas Donaldson's "The Six Nations of New York," *Eleventh Census of the United States*, Extra Census Bulletin, 1892, p. 20.

Soon they were walking through the streets of the town, Red Feather pattering beside his powerful father. He did not think of the scene, for it was old to him. It was, however, a very unusual town. There were two divisions. One was the White Town, governed by the civil officials. This was the peace town, in which no blood could be shed. The other was the Red Town, governed by warrior chiefs, of whom Red Feather's father was one. Blood could be shed in the Red, or War, Town.

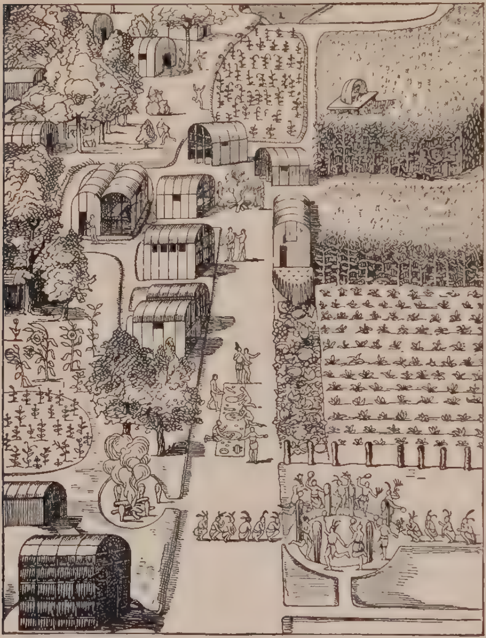

FIG. 3. This picture of part of a Creek village was drawn by one of the early explorers. Notice particularly the sacred fire, the Indian dance, and the ripening grain and other vegetable foods

The entire town was built all around a main square, which was in the heart of the town. This place was sacred ground. It had been chosen before the first building was made.

In the middle of the open square burned the sacred fire. Under no condition must this fire be allowed to go entirely out.

At every corner of the square, facing north, east, south, and west, were the lodges of the chiefs. On the highest corner was the council house. In the large round council room of this house, the laws of the tribe were made, and there the head chief lived with the leader of ceremonies. At the second corner lived the warrior chiefs. In the third dwelt the warriors themselves. The women, children, and strangers made their homes in the fourth. The lodges were well built, with lathed and plastered walls, and doors of planks.

Red Feather chattered about many things. He was excited, for tomorrow the festival of the mighty maize god would commence. Maize was the chief food of the tribe, and it was worshiped as the god who gave life. Red Feather recalled the day when all the warriors had turned out to plant the sacred grain. Now, although it seemed that but a moon had passed since that day, the corn dances were to be held.

The next morning the festival began. It was to last two days. First the top soil of the public square was cleared off by the warriors. Next the lodges were cleaned and repaired by the men and women. Then began the dances.

A new sacred fire was kindled from the old, and sparks from the new flame were carried by the women to their own hearths. A new year was begun. The father of Red Feather made peace with his enemies, for with the new year old quarrels must be forgotten. The festival ended with a game of ball. The warriors ran from their ball game, plunged into the river, washed off their paint, and with great dignity sat down to the feast of the maize.

Red Feather went home, tired but burning with impatience for the day when he too might become a warrior. He wanted to share the ceremonies — to be able to hunt, to fight, to dance, to feast before the women and children, and to wear ceremonial paint.

Do you think that people who were able to live as the Creeks lived were uncivilized? We know that they had a settled way of living, that they knew something about agriculture, the building of houses, and the making of clothes. Since all this is true, should you call them "savages," as did the Europeans who found them here?

Were there space we might tell how the Creeks made buffalo wool into yarn and blankets, how they made fine buckskin shirts for the men and skirts for the women, how they decorated their clothing with beautiful bead patterns, how they made bowls and utensils from clay, and how they wove baskets. We might also learn how they governed themselves and worked together in communities. But we must go on with word pictures of other tribes.

3. The Indians of the Mississippi Valley and the Great Plains

In the broad valley of the Mississippi River, and farther west in the Great Plains region, dwelt many other tribes of Indians. They were somewhat like the Creeks and the Iroquois in that they raised maize. But, later, even more important to them than maize was the buffalo, the magnificent animal of the plains.

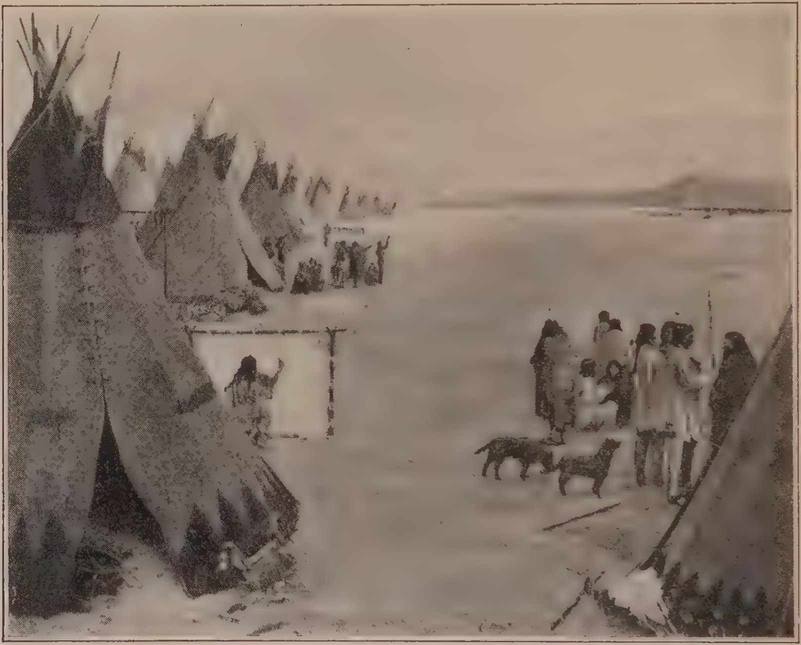

FIG. 4. The Sioux lived less settled lives than the Iroquois or the Creeks, for they had to follow the buffalo — the source of their clothing, shelter, and food. (Adapted from a photograph from the American Museum of Natural History)

The life of the plains Indians revolved about the buffalo. He became their most important food; he furnished hide for the home and for the dress and shoes; dances were named in his honor. New ways of living had developed because of him as the Indians followed his wanderings about the prairies of the Mississippi Valley.

For many moons the tribe had been following the buffalo toward the setting sun. Now the end of the Great Plains was near. Soon they would reach the mountains. During the long wandering no trees had cast their forest shade. Instead, level grassy lands stretched so far as to tire the eye — north, east, south, and west. Herds of shaggy buffaloes kept up a constant restless moving from grassland to new grassland. Always at the heels of the herd moved the tribe.

The sun was slipping to the far distant rim of the plain as the tribe at last found a small stream. Here, at the edge of the stream, they stopped to pitch camp. Weary dogs stood with tongues hanging. All through the long day's march they had dragged the heavy travois — two long poles fastened to their backs. To the travois were strapped the bundles which held the family possessions.

Soon the women began to untie the travois and open the packs. Prairie Flower, a little maid of the tribe, hurriedly opened one pack and unrolled the buffalo hide used for the tepee. Her mother began to set up the ridge poles of the tepee. First she carefully set the main pole so that the entrance to the tepee would face the east. Then she arranged more poles on the ground in a circle and bound the tops of them together with buckskin.

Over these poles Prairie Flower and her mother stretched the hide. It was a beautiful hide, painted with stars at the top and bottom and with a row of otters halfway between. Prairie Flower remembered the time when her father had painted the skin for the tepee. He had told her a story about the stars and the otters. The otter was her father's powerful medicine that protected him in the hunt and at war.

Prairie Flower slipped the wooden pins in place, fastening the folds of the tepee. Her home was ready for furnishing. It must be ventilated, however, and she watched while her mother fastened back two small flaps at the top of the tepee, so that air could enter and the smoke could escape.

Together Prairie Flower and her mother set up the altar behind the fire. The mother lighted the tobacco incense, which was burned to purify the home. On the altar she placed the war bundle of the head of the family. This contained many curious objects with which he carried on friendly relations with the spirits.

The father's newest wife lighted the flame in the stone fireplace. It was her duty to heat the stones which would cook the buffalo meat for supper. Another wife gathered wood. An older daughter soothed the little brother, who cried from discomfort. He had been strapped to a board hung on his mother's back all day and was tired and very hungry.

So the plains Indians lived, moving from place to place, dependent on the buffalo for food, clothing, and shelter — a very different life from that of the eastern and southern tribes.

4. Dwellers of the north Pacific coast lands

In the far land of the setting sun, far beyond the most western wanderings of the tribe of Prairie Flower, lived another little Indian girl. In all her life she had never journeyed more than a few miles from the frame house in which she had been born. Day and night she heard the waters of Puget Sound, almost at her feet. There was much rain all year round.

Early one morning, as the thin, red beam of morning sunlight showed through a crack in the door, the little girl slipped from her bed of skins. She pushed open the wooden entrance. She was just in time to see the gold-red disk of the sun creep above the snow-covered Cascade Mountains.

Much work awaited her that day, for cool weather was sending its first warning. Already there was a shivery threat in the thin morning air. Salmon, which hung in long rows, was now dry on the poles behind the house. It must be taken down to be powdered and packed in her own bright baskets, so that there might be food all winter. Later the last berries must be gathered and dried in the noon sun. Camas root must be dug and stored.

After the midday meal, in the heat of the Indian-summer afternoon, the little girl and her mother took their weaving to the summer seats. These were wooden platforms built above the edges of the bluff which rose from the river. There the women of the tribe sat, delighting in the cool breeze as they wove their blankets of shredded cedar bark. At sunset the men of the village returned in their dugout canoes, carrying with them driftwood for winter fires.

The little girl knew that soon there would be big potlatches and there must be many blankets. The potlatches were meetings of the chiefs of Puget Sound. Each chief was proud of his family name and of his wealth and longed to arouse envy in the hearts of his rival chiefs.

The father of the little girl was named Giving Wealth. He belonged to the great Eagle clan, and before his house he had a tall totem pole which told the story of his ancestors. In his house he had two great poles which helped to support the roof. The poles were carved with the figures of the ancestors of the Eagles. They were brightly painted heads of animals and of gods which were half men. Each chief knew the meaning of the carvings, although to strangers the figures meant nothing.

The Puget Sound Indians of the Northwest were wealthy Indians. They remind us a little of some newly rich people who delight in many possessions and in family names. They loved to display their blankets and their "coppers," which were a kind of coin.

5. Indian tribes at "the ends of the earth" — California

Not many hundreds of miles to the south of Puget Sound lived some tribes who were much poorer than their neighbors. They were the slaves of nature, and it was hard, indeed, for them to snatch a bare living from the earth.

They lived in the land that is now the sunny, fruit-growing state of California. But these Indians did not know how to make the land blossom as the white man did later, nor did they hunt the buffalo, the deer, and the bear as did their Eastern plains neighbors. While other Indian tribes were learning new ways of living from their neighbors, the California Indians remained uncivilized. Here is a glimpse of their ways of living.

A woman and her young son crawled from their poor thatch hut. On her back the woman carried a basket bound by a strap across her forehead. The child clung close to his mother's side, for he feared witches and werewolves that he had been taught to believe lurked in the forests. Many a night as the wind made mysterious sounds at the door, his grandmother made his little scalp prickle with fear as she told of demons that hid in the forest. They waited, she said, behind every tree to seize and eat fat babies.

Presently they reached a grove of oaks. The mother and son began to gather acorns and to put them into the basket.

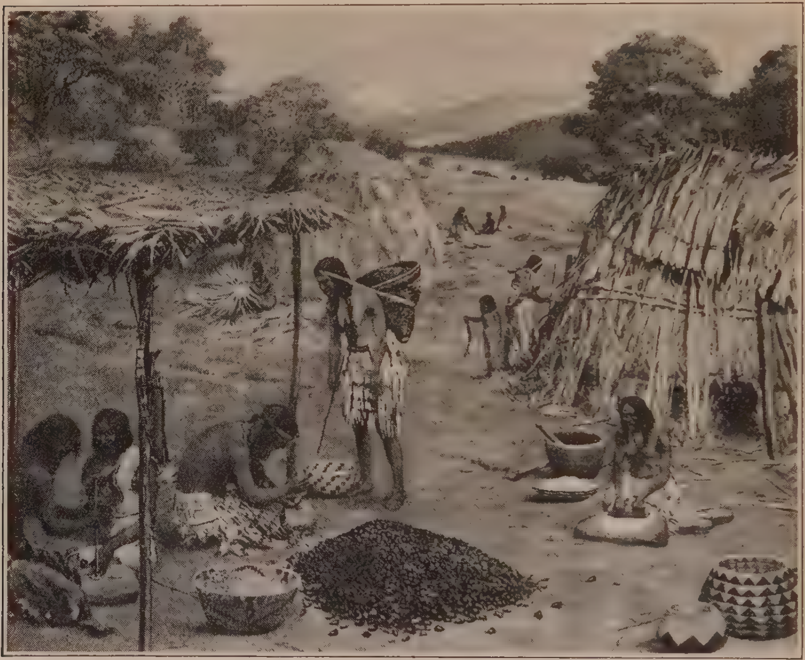

FIG. 5. The civilization of the California Indians was more primitive than that of most other Indians. The Indians of Puget Sound had learned to build more weatherproof houses than the California Indians. Indians in many other parts of the continent not only had better houses but also had learned to cultivate the soil. (Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History)

"We'll not starve this year when cold days come," said the woman. "There are many acorns under the oak trees this year."

The little boy was glad. Too well he recalled the cold days of last winter. Many times there were no fish, no berries, no acorn bread to be had. Father could not find so much as a little white rabbit to fill the boy's empty stomach. How often he had cried himself to sleep with hunger!

The woman rejoiced too. For many winters she had been haunted by the fear that her family might starve. Every year there were deaths among the tribe; only the strongest lived on to gather acorns another year.

This is only a glimpse of another way of living — just enough to remind us of the great differences among the many Indian tribes.

6. The Pueblo Indians of the Southwest deserts

A journey of several days from the California tribes would take the traveler of 1492 into the homes of highly civilized Indians. These were the Pueblo settlements of the Southwest desert lands. These people had built permanent homes. Some of them lived in villages among the cliffs; others lived on the high table-lands which rose from the desert; still others lived in the valley of the Colorado River. (See map of figure 1.) Their settlements spread over a T-shaped area extending across what are now New Mexico, Arizona, Nevada, southern Colorado, Utah, and northern Mexico.

Let us look into a Pueblo settlement perched high on a mesa (plateau). There are two entrances to the village from the plain. One is a long, gradual upward slope. Another is a steep secret trail. Both are guarded by day and night to keep off enemy invaders.

It was an August noon. The sun-heated desert sand scorched the feet of the little group of Indians returning homeward. Ahead they could see the broad trail winding upward to their village.

Light of Dawn looked up at her high home. She tried to imagine how small she must look to the guards at the top of the trail. Many times before, when she was on top, she had looked down to see tiny human figures; they seemed to crawl like ants across the glaring sand. Now the trail wound steeply upward, and after a hard climb she and her party reached the top.

The gardens of the village lay ahead. The cornstalks were parched in the dry fields, for the harvest had been gathered and water could no longer be spared for irrigation. The stone reservoir gaped to catch any stray drop of water that might fall by some miracle from the bright blue sky.

Beyond the gardens stood the pueblo. It rose in four terraces on three sides of an open court. There were no doors or windows in the dwellings of the first story. Light of Dawn easily mounted the high ladder which led to the first terrace.

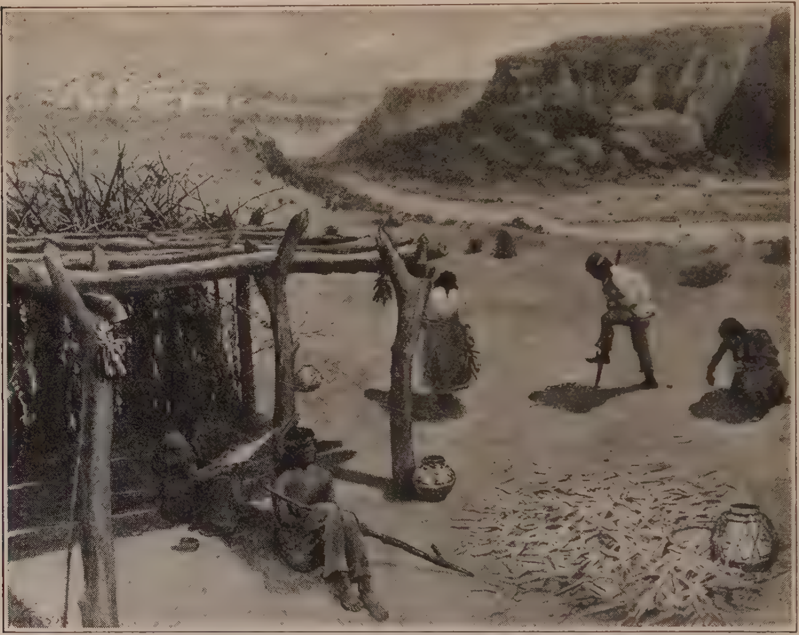

FIG. 6. The Pueblo Indians depended upon corn more than upon any other food. Because of the short rainy season, they planted their gardens close to a river, from which they could water their crops. Far in the distance one of their pueblos is seen. (Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History)

There she greeted the neighbors who clustered about the returning party. They were eager for news of the pueblo which Light of Dawn had just visited.

Everyone was on the terrace that August day. They were very busy, for tomorrow was the day of the corn festival. The great Rain Spirit was to be urged to send life-giving rain to the desert, so that there might be maize in abundance.

On the terrace, in the sunlight, rows of corn were drying, while in the shade, strung from poles, hung bunches of dried meat and green and red chili peppers. Two of Light of Dawn's young friends chattered in a shady corner as they ground corn on stone slabs.

Like her, they wore their hair in two great cart-wheel puffs over each ear, for this was to show that they were not yet married. In a corner a young man exposed his naked back to the sun as he painted a piece of pottery in beautiful colored designs.

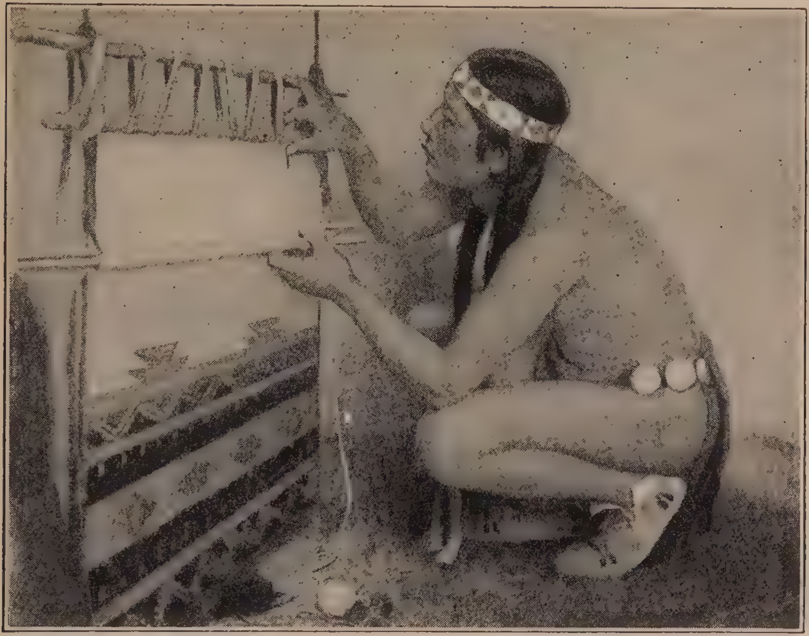

FIG. 7. A Pueblo Indian weaving a wedding garment. (From a painting by E. Irving Couse, N. A. Photograph from Keystone View Company)

Light of Dawn told the story of her trip. Then she climbed to the second terrace. This was the roof of her home. There was an opening in the roof. Through it she descended by a ladder which led to the cool half-darkness of the interior.

In the corner at the fireplace Light of Dawn's older sister, who was married and who accordingly wore her hair in two long braids, was baking corn for the festival. She spread a thin layer of corn meal and water on hot stones. In a moment she stripped this off with her hand only to spread another layer.

Light of Dawn's brother-in-law was boring turquoise to make beads for his wife to wear. Her brother was rapidly weaving a bright cotton cloth. It was the wedding garment in which he was to be married after the festival.

On the feast day the sun rose bright and the sky was a dazzling blue. There was a great stir in the village. Light of Dawn chose a place on the balcony from which to watch the ceremonies.

Now the drums beat. The crowd became quiet and reverent as two lines of dancers appeared, moving in a slow, measured step. The bodies of the men were painted red, yellow, or blue. They wore turquoise necklaces, and sprigs of cedar were tucked in beneath their belts and silver armlets. The women wore green wooden headdresses, which represented clouds and lightning. The steps of the dancers were slow, even, all in perfect time. At the head of the dancers was the chorus. To the beat of the drum they chanted:

Now come rain! Now come rain!
Fall upon the mountain; sink into the ground,
By and by the springs are made
Deep beneath the hills,
There they hide and thence they come,
Out into the light; down into the stream.

Light of Dawn sat straight and still. The dancing went on for hours. Presently she grew tired and the spell of the dance and the chant was broken. She wanted to go and play. The sun moved higher and higher in the sky; then it sank. Still the drums beat. Still the dancing continued. Still the chorus rose:

Look to the hills! Look to the hills!
The clouds are hanging there,
They will not go away;
But look, look again. In time they will come to us
And spread over all the pueblo.

So it was that in 1492 this great territory, now called the United States, sheltered but a few hundred thousand Indian people. Some of them lived in towns and villages, cultivating the soil and governing themselves; others lived the nomadic life of huntsmen on the Great Plains. In the Southwest desert higher civilized tribes lived in permanent homes and knew how to use metal. Nearly all the tribes had learned to make cloth, garments, and utensils, and all had a great love for ornament, and had developed to an art the decoration of clothing and pottery.

7. In Mexico and in Central and South America there were more extensive Indian civilizations

The North American natives, about whom we have been reading, were less civilized than their neighbors to the south. Southward from where the United States now lies, stretched three great Indian empires! *In this territory lived more than 10,000,000 Indian people,* descendants of men who had made their homes for thousands of years in these regions.[1]

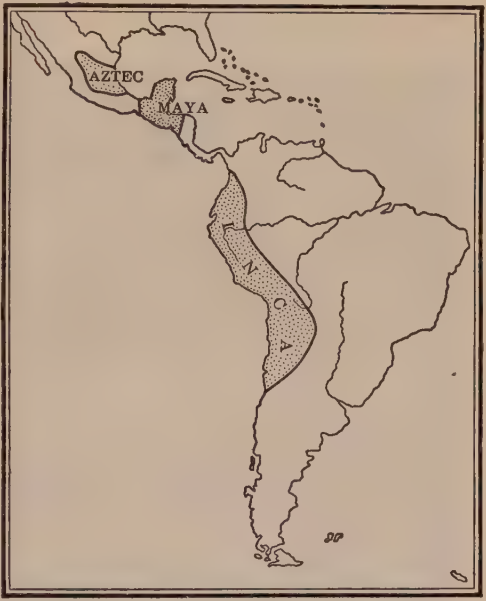

FIG. 8. What we know as Latin America today contained three civilizations which were already ancient before Europeans discovered the New World. The map shows where these people lived

a. "The glory that was Maya"

In *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* you have already read in Chapter XXII of the fine Indian civilizations that the Mayas, the Aztecs, and the Incas had built from Mexico to Peru.

When the first Spanish conquistadors (conquerors) came to Central America, after 1500, they fought their way southward through the dense tropical undergrowth of Honduras. Their march took them within a few miles of a little river. Had they turned aside along this stream, they would have rubbed their eyes and believed they were in an enchanted land, for there lay the ruins of a great city called Copán. It had been an important center, built long before by the Maya Indians.

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[1] The facts of these Indian civilizations are taken from such sources as the following: Marquis de Nadaillac, *Prehistoric America*, G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1884; Thomas A. Joyce, *South American Archeology*, G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1912; and Paul Radin, *The Story of the American Indian*, Boni & Liveright, New York, 1927.

On a level plain stood a group of tall buildings — temples, palaces, and government buildings. They rose like skyscrapers as high as 200 feet into the blue sky. The Maya skyscrapers were built upon a solid foundation which sometimes was taller than the building itself. Steps led up the side of the foundation to the building above.

The most remarkable feature of the city was the civic center. This was a square which was built with each of its four sides facing in a direction of the compass. About the square were grouped the temples and public buildings, and there the Mayas worshiped their gods and carried on the business of their government. This form of public square was somewhat similar to that of the Creeks. The streets of Copán were paved, and the city had an excellent drainage and sewerage system.

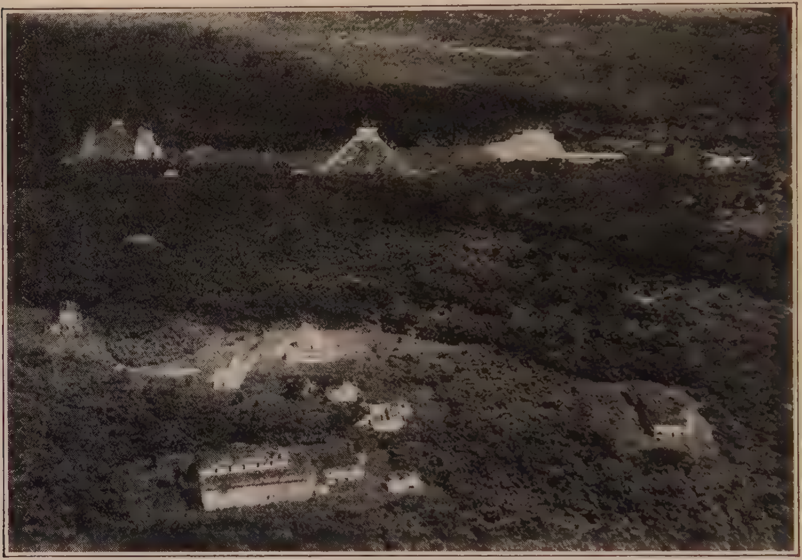

Fig. 9. All that is left of Chichen-Itzá, once a center of Mayan civilization. Scientists have cleared and restored some of the buildings long overgrown by jungles

The chief god of the Mayas was a winged serpent. He gave the people rain, wind, sunset, and the morning star, and he it was who gave them their capital city. He had left them many, many years before the white men came to America, promising, however, that some day he would return. For this reason the

Mayas believed that the first Spaniards were the fair gods who had been promised them.

As you may suppose from the building of Copán, the Maya Indians were a very highly civilized people. For thousands of years they lived scattered in Mexico and in Central America and finally migrated to southern Mexico (see figure 8). They knew how to raise corn and other agricultural products long before the Europeans did. They made beautiful pottery and jewelry of gold, silver, and precious stones. Their priests wrote books on a kind of paper, writing on both sides and then folding the sheets like Chinese screens. Unfortunately only a few Mayan books have been found, and of those only a portion can be read.

Most wonderful of all was the sculpture, the architecture, and the decorations of the Mayas. Even Greece, Rome, and the other Old World civilizations never surpassed these Indians in building and in carving and painting stone.

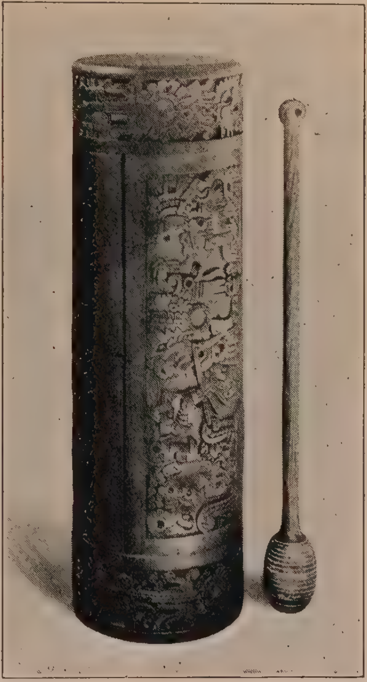

FIG. 10. Mayan drum. (Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History)

The Mayas had a calendar adorned with the figures and histories of the gods. By means of this calendar it was possible to keep a record of time. The year was divided by quite an exact system into months, weeks, and days. Thirty-four thousand years were predicted on the calendar. The Maya astronomers must have felt somewhat overcome by the size of these figures, for they predicted the end of the world at the close of that period.

Do you think from the description above that the Mayas were as much the slaves of nature as the Iroquois Indians? the plains Indians? the California Indians? in general, the Indians of North America?

About 50 years before 1492 something happened to destroy the best of the Mayan civilization. We do not know what this tragedy was, but by the time the Spanish conquistador Cortes passed through Honduras (1525), the temples of the gods were overgrown with vines, and jungle plants filled the great temples of Copán.

b. The Aztec empire-builders of Mexico

Farther north in Mexico another Indian civilization, the Aztec, was at its height in 1492. The great Aztec empire had borrowed many ideas from the Mayas. They built their temples and palaces much as did the Mayas. They also had a calendar.

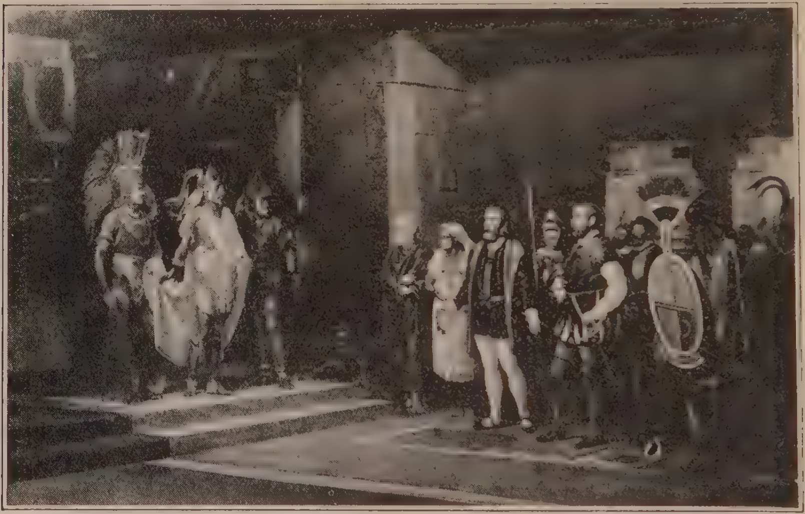

FIG. 11. The civilization of the Aztecs was already well developed when the first white people came to know it (see pages 47 and 48). (From a painting by J. Ortega, in the National Gallery, San Carlos, Mexico)

Let us suppose that we are able to stroll through the market place of the Aztec city, which is today called Mexico City. We are accompanied by our host, a young Aztec boy. Beside us patters his little slave, a boy of ten years, whose parents, because of poverty, were obliged to sell him into slavery.

The city streets are well laid out with fine stone buildings made without the use of mortar. We pass the beautiful palace of the Chief-of-Men, the great warrior ruler of Mexico. Here the clan chiefs gather to make war and to govern conquered provinces.

Near by is another temple of the God of Peace, where the tax-collectors and the crop-gatherers transact their business. Another temple rises to the War God. We should like to enter this temple, but it is forbidden to a member of the common people. In it is the great sacrificial stone upon which human victims are offered as sacrifice to the Terrible God.

As we walk slowly to the market in the fresh dry heat of early morning, our host tells the great history of the Aztec people. He boasts of their great prowess in war, of their rich colonies, their growing empire, and tells the story of how his tribes wandered from the Seven Caves of the North and founded Mexico City.

"In the Seven Caves of the North," he says, "lived my ancestors. They were too crowded in the caves. The maize did not grow well, for the Rain God sent them little water. One night the Terrible God appeared to my people. He told them tales of fertile valleys far to the south. He offered to lead the Aztec people there. He promised that he would show them where to found a great city.

"After many years of wandering through desert lands, my people reached the great snow-covered mountains. Here the Terrible God had prophesied that they would find a great nopal (cactus) tree. Perched on the nopal they would find a noble eagle. That was the promised land, and there the great city would be founded. All things turned out as the Terrible God had foretold. My people fought many wars and conquered all the tribes near by. So they formed a great and powerful nation. But here we are at the market," he concludes.

In the market there are many people engaged in buying and selling. The merchants are important people among the Aztecs, for they travel much among the conquered provinces, and the Chief-of-Men depends much upon them for information about the empire. The artisans too are important and are organized into guilds. The guild of the goldsmiths is the highest in rank. They have their booths on one side of the market. Near them are the traders in precious gems — jewels mounted in gold in forms of birds and animals. In one place beads and mirrors are sold; in another, feathers and plumes of all colors for working designs on garments to wear in war or at festivals. Farther on stone razors and swords are for sale. Cotton, grain which forms part of the food, bread of all kinds, pastry, fowls, and eggs are sold in different sections.

c. The Children of the Sun: the Inca Indians of South America

In northern South America, in the ancient empire of Peru, lived Indians who called themselves Children of the Sun. The sun was their great god who gave them life. His son was the Only Inca, the supreme ruler of the people.

Perhaps one reason why these people worshiped the sun was that they lived on the peaks of high mountains close to their god. The sacred city of Cuzco, where the Incas lived, was perched high among the eternally snow-crowned Andes. In the valleys between the peaks sturdy, healthy farmers lived in roofless adobe houses. There was no need for protection against rain or snow, for the sky was ever an unchanging blue. By means of irrigation these Indians also cultivated maize.

Occasionally the officials of the Inca came to collect taxes from the farmers and to see that peace reigned among them. Well-paved roads connected various parts of the empire, over which, in times of war, armies could move swiftly against the enemy. Here is how one of the Spanish conquerors describes these roads:

> Some of them extended over one thousand one hundred leagues, [a total of about 3800 miles] along such dizzy and frightful abysses that, looking down, the sight failed one. In some places, to secure the regular width, it was necessary to hew a path out of the living rock, all of which was done with fire and their picks.
>
> In other places the ascents were so steep and high that steps had to be cut from below to enable the ascent to be made, with wider spaces at intervals for resting places. In other parts there were great heaps of snow, which were more to be feared, and not at one spot only, but often recurring. Where the snows obstructed the way, and where there were forests of trees and loose clods of earth, the road was leveled and paved with stones when necessary.[1]

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[1] Thomas A. Joyce, *South American Archeology*, pp. 106–107. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1912.

The Children of the Sun, or the Inca Indians as they are usually called, were indeed highly civilized people like the Aztecs and the Mayas. They too knew how to reckon time and to use numbers. In their counting they knotted cords upon which they could do large sums and calculate time as did the Mayas. They also used the knotted cords in keeping records of population. They worked in bronze, gold, and silver, modeled beautiful pottery in animal, human, and other forms, and wove fine fabrics of llama wool.

Great and rich as were these people, and wonderful as was their government, they were inferior to the Mayas and Aztecs in art and architecture. They were a melting pot of conquered peoples and conquerors. In some respects their empire was like our own complicated American civilization.

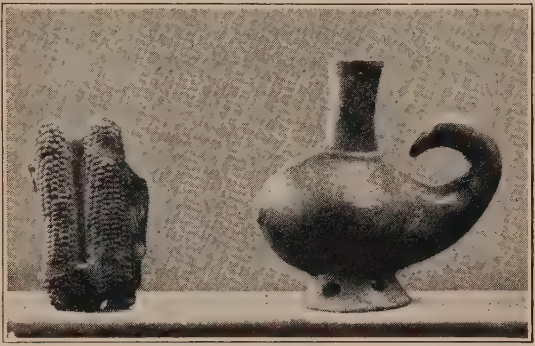

FIG. 12. Inca pitchers in the form of corn and squash. (Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History)

This must complete our glimpses of the Indian civilizations of North and South America in 1492. We have glanced at only nine of the many groups scattered from Canada on the north to Chile in the south — six small tribes in different parts of what is now the United States, two fairly large nations in Central America, and a huge empire in South America. Although our study has been brief it has been representative. From your more complete reading and study of such groups as these you can obtain a clear picture of these early civilizations of the *American people.*[1]

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[1] See such thrilling and authentic books as (1) Paul Radin's *Story of the American Indian* (Boni & Liveright, New York, 1927) and (2) Flora Seymour's *Story of the Red Man* (Longmans, Green & Co., New York).

FROM WHERE DID THESE INDIAN PEOPLES COME?

How did it happen that these 10,000,000 reddish-skinned people were living here in 1492? Where did they come from? Were they "always" in these places? Are their civilizations very old? 10,000 years old? 100,000 years old? Are they related to the people of Asia and of Europe? If so, when and how did they come over to "America"?

Many people today are curious to know the answers to these questions, but no one knows. Even the Indians themselves did not know. Their story-tellers related tales of how their forefathers came from lands to the west of the setting sun (Asia). It happened, of course, too long ago for them or even their great-grandparents to remember. They did not really know their own ancient history and could only guess.

Even our best students of old civilizations do not know. They have different theories but very little sure knowledge. Some of them today think that the forefathers of these Indians did originally come from Asia. Others think that the Indians had "always" lived in America — as long ago as the human mind can imagine.

Those who believe that the American Indians came from Asia remind us of the land bridge between the continents of Asia and North America by which the prehistoric men could have crossed. It is thought that these very ancient peoples crossed over this strip of land between the two continents. Recently human skeletons and relics of primitive tools and implements have been found in the Aleutian Islands. Such discoveries and the knowledge that has accumulated concerning the way people lived in the two continents have led some of our scientists to conclude that groups of these ancient Asians slowly worked their way southward in North America. Some settled in the cold northland, others in the temperate regions, still others in the tropical lands of Central and South America.

The climate throughout the great northern region which is now called Alaska and Canada was cold. For many months in the year there was deep snow on the ground and ice on the streams. It was hard to get a living because there were few animals, and crops could be raised from the soil only a few months in the year and then only with difficulty.

For such climatic reasons, think our scientists, some of the Indians tended to work their way toward the warmer central and southern sections of the continent. In the region which is now southern Canada, the United States, and Mexico, they found a much pleasanter climate. There were many animals whose flesh and hide could be used for food and clothing. Grains could be raised easily. So they stayed, and larger populations grew up. Thus it is believed that geographic factors played a large part in determining where these Indian people came to live.

GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS WHICH HELP TO EXPLAIN THE SETTLEMENT OF THE INDIANS

Our previous studies have taught us the influence of several geographic conditions upon where and how people live — for example, first, the temperature and rainfall; second, the topography, or "lay of the land"; third, the fertility and depth of the soil; fourth, the existence of iron, gold, silver, copper, and other minerals in the earth.[1] We find the influence of these geographic factors illustrated in the case of the Indian civilizations. Climate, topography, character of the soil, and minerals had a great deal to do with both *where* they settled and *how* they lived.

The northern part of North America, the region now covered by Canada and Alaska, and the extreme southern part of South America were both cold regions. In each it was rather difficult to get a living, even of the poor sort that the Indians of the plains and of the western coast of North America managed to get. Snow covered the land for many months in the year, buffaloes and other animals were much more scarce than they were in the temperate zones, and the soil was less fertile and harder to cultivate. Hence very few Indians were to be found there. A few strong, hardy tribesmen did succeed in living even in the extreme arctic and South American regions. Through thousands of years, no doubt, the strongest of these peoples continued to survive in spite of the severe climatic conditions. Even today small scattered groups of their descendants continue to live there.

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[1] This theme recurred frequently in *An Introduction to American Civilization* and in *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World.* These geographic factors were principally responsible for the development of the great ancient river-valley civilizations, for the development of the Roman Empire and of the more recent European empires.

To the southward, however, in the region now covered by the United States, the climate was more temperate — the rainfall and temperature more favorable for raising food. There was a vast central plain with more than a million square miles of fertile soil, where crops could be raised and buffaloes and other animals hunted. There were great rivers, open most of the year, from which fish could be taken and which were navigable to small boats. Snow covered the ground only a small part of each year, and the growing seasons were long. In this great territory favorable for human living, a fairly large number of Indians established themselves. Approximately a half-million were living there in 1492.

Some, like the Iroquois, the Creeks, and other Indians of the Atlantic plain, had learned how to raise food from the soil and lived in settled communities. Their standards of living were fairly high. Others were nomadic tribes wandering over the plains and depending upon such animal and plant food as was at hand. Their standards of living were lower.

It is clear indeed that the geographic factors — warmer climate, fertile soil, and abundance of wild animals and plants — influenced the ways in which the North American Indians lived.

These same factors played an important part in the lives of the Indians of Central and South America. There, except in the highlands, the climate was warm, even hot, most of the year. The soil was rich and vegetation abundant. Farming flourished there, and civilization developed to a high point. In the highlands of Central and South America the people found minerals — copper, iron, gold, and silver. In ways unknown their more intelligent leaders learned, as had the Europeans and Asiatics, to make useful weapons, tools, and utensils out of these minerals. They learned how to use limestone to make concrete, and how to fashion permanent buildings out of stone and other materials.

So we find again and again that "geography," in the form of mineral resources, climate, soil, and topography, helped to determine the way in which these first Americans lived.[1]

ON AN OCTOBER MORNING IN 1492 SOMETHING HAPPENED WHICH WAS TO CHANGE THE LIFE OF THESE TWO VAST CONTINENTS

It was October 12, 1492, in the islands now known as the West Indies.

The sun rose over the blue water. The waves glittered and sparkled to the far horizon. Several strong young Indians ran along the beach of one of the little islands which lie in the Atlantic Ocean to the south and east of North America. The tall figures of the young men moved easily and gracefully. They were happy in the clear air of the morning and they sang a song.

Suddenly one of them pointed toward the east and the others followed his gaze. . . . What were those three white spots? . . . Birds? . . . Truly birds were never so large as that. . . . Canoes from the neighboring islands? But canoes did not come from the great waters toward the rising sun. . . . Still the young men watched and the white spots grew larger. They seemed like huge canoes — and yet not canoes. Above them stretched something white, which they had thought to be the wings of birds.

Were those human figures moving on the strange canoes? The young men looked at each other. They were frightened. . . . Could these be anything but spirits come down to visit men? . . . Still the white objects drew nearer. . . . So near were they now that the young men could see plainly that they were boats. They could see a splash of red on the largest boat. . . . The young men turned and ran toward the village.

On the first boat the man who wore the red cloak which they had seen followed them with his eyes. He was Christopher Columbus, a European explorer. Although he did not know it, he was "discovering" a world hitherto unknown to Europeans.

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[1] It is of the greatest importance that the exercises in the *Workbook* (Problem I) accompanying this *Reading Book* be carried on in connection with the reading of this chapter. Repeatedly throughout *A History of American Civilization* we shall make use of geographic materials. An understanding of them is essential to a mastery of historical developments.

This event marked the beginning of the greatest transformation in the world's history — the peopling of North and South America by the races of Europe. In the next 400 years, millions of Europeans were to follow the path marked out by Christopher Columbus.

In the vanguard came the greedy, adventurous explorers of the seas, daring the terrors of the unknown Atlantic for the fabulous riches of the New World. Then slowly in the 1600's English, French, and Dutch pioneers settled in North America, while Spanish and Portuguese conquerors plundered Central and South America. Gradually throughout the 1700's these Europeans were claiming nearly the whole continent for their own.

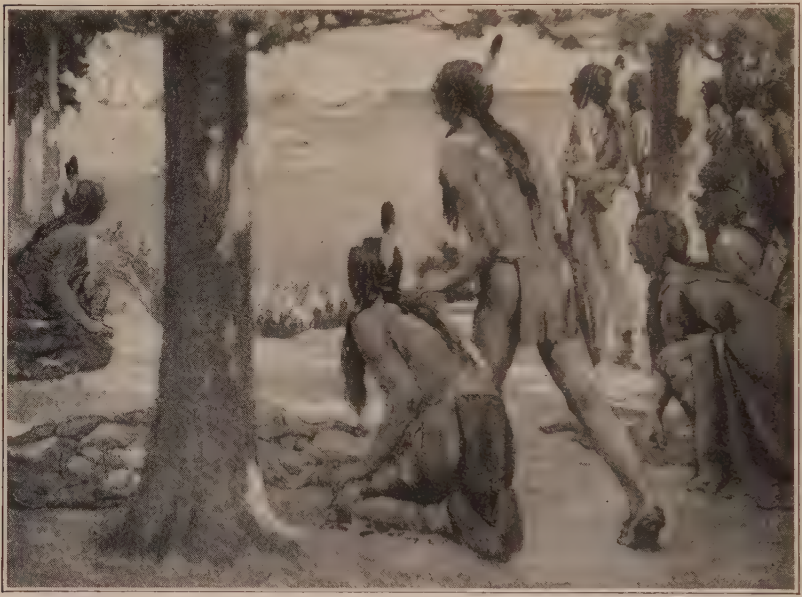

FIG. 13. Indians watch the approach of the great "white birds" in 1492. (From a painting by G. A. Reid, R. C. A.)

Thus our vast modern industrial nation and, with it, Canada and Mexico and nineteen other Latin American countries were to rise from an almost wild continent.

A truly momentous event — that coming of the three White Birds to the western islands on that October morning of 1492.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Brooks, Eldridge S. The Story of the American Indian. Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., Boston, 1887. History of the Indian from Columbus to the present time.

Curtis, Edward S. In the Land of the Head-Hunters. World Book Company, Yonkers, New York, 1915. The love story, beautifully told, of an Indian of what is now northern British Columbia.

Drake, Francis S. Indian History for Young Folks. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1884; revised 1927. A history of the Indians — customs, home life, wars, and treatment by the white man — from the time of the first settlements.

Eastman, Charles A. Indian Child Life. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1913. Written by a Sioux Indian; true stories of his childhood,— sports and games, hardships, training for hunting and fighting, home life,— of other real Indians, and of the childhood of a girl.

Eastman, Charles A. Indian Boyhood. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1902. The first chapters are the same as in *Indian Child Life*; the following chapters tell of his boyhood in the woods.

Grinnell, George B. Blackfeet Indian Stories. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1913. Myths and legends of the Blackfeet Indians.

Grinnell, George B. The Indians of Today. Duffield & Company, New York, 1911. Legends and myths of various tribes; how they live today on the reservations, and how the Indian is educated. Not written for children, but interesting and readable.

Grinnell, George B. The Story of the Indian. D. Appleton & Company, New York, 1923. The story of the Indian from the time of the discovery of America.

Grinnell, George B. When Buffalo Ran. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1920. The true story of an Indian of the plains 70 years ago — games, hunting, fighting, love, and marriage.

Johnston, C. H. L. Famous Indian Chiefs. The Page Company, Boston, 1909. Tells of the battles, treaties, sieges, and struggles of prominent Indians.

Schultz, J. W. My Life as an Indian. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1914. Thrilling and true story of a white man who lived for a long time among the Blackfeet Indians. Tells of the home life and wars of the tribe when they lived on the plains by killing buffaloes. It is filled with exciting incidents. Not written for children but very easily read.

Wilson, E. N.; edited and revised by H. R. Driggs. The White Indian Boy. World Book Company, Yonkers, New York, 1919. A thrilling story of a real white boy who lived two years with the Shoshones.

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CHAPTER II

ADVENTUROUS EXPLORERS SEEKING EASTERN RICHES FOUND A NEW WORLD: AMERICA

What were the White Birds of the sea which the Indians sighted that morning in 1492? Whence had they flown?

THE STORY OF CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, AN ITALIAN NAVIGATOR

To answer these questions, we must go back many years and look into an old port city on the Mediterranean — a great city in those days, the Italian city of Genoa. There a young boy — Christopher Columbus, son of a wool-weaver — was growing to manhood. Perhaps you have already read much about his life. It would take too long to tell the whole thrilling story here; so we can only catch little glimpses of important events in it.

You may be sure that much of the lad's time was spent idling with the other boys of Genoa about the wharves. How eagerly they all watched the restless life that shifted before their eyes! It was a fascinating place, full of color, movement, and animation. Christopher could talk every day with sailors who were eager to tell of rich foreign lands full of romance and adventure. The stories of times spent in sailing the sea were no less exciting than those of times spent on land, for treasure-snatching and the chase and plunder of enemy ships were common occurrences.

The ships captured the boy's imagination. Here were galleys filled with sweating captives whose dreary lives were spent dragging at heavy oars. There were Spanish caravels,— clumsy, roundish boats without decks,— manned by dark-bearded, fierce-looking sailors. Light-haired, carousing Englishmen mingled with talkative Greeks; turbaned East Indian sailors from Madras and Bombay rubbed elbows with stocky, robust Portuguese seamen.

The many strange languages and the heaped-up bales of foreign goods set young Christopher to pondering about the great world outside Genoa. He was told that the bales of cotton were from Egypt, the tin and lead were from England, the spices from the Indies, the silk from Cathay (China). He began to think much about the geography of the world — the location and the kinds of countries from which these strange treasures came. We imagine that more and more he neglected his father's wool-carding business to pore over books when he was not listening to sailors' tales.

At length the fascination of the sea proved stronger to Columbus than the duty to carry on his father's business. At the age of fourteen, by his own account, he left Genoa and took to the sea. In several voyages he traveled far and wide. He sailed south along the coast of Africa and north perhaps as far as Iceland, where he heard rumors of early voyages by adventurous Norsemen to new lands across the western sea. These stories were to have a deep effect upon his life.[1]

At length the young man married and lived some years in Portugal, where he learned much about the world and about navigation. The Portuguese were good sailors and explorers. Under Prince Henry, called the Navigator, they were learning to use maps and charts. They began to steer by the magnetic compass and later carried on the work of Dias, who in 1486 had sailed along the African coast as far south as the Cape of Good Hope.

Columbus studied maps of the known world and made maps for a living. He read the books on geography, and among them was probably a copy of Marco Polo's *Travels*.

Columbus pondered over a tremendous idea. He was not the first to have it, but surely there was no man in those days who so believed in it. The Atlantic stretched to the west far beyond the knowledge of men. Books of travel said that east of Cathay (China) lay a great ocean. The wise men of ancient times and of his own time agreed that the earth was a round ball. This Columbus had come to believe, although among sailors and uneducated people it was held to be flat. His great idea, therefore, was that the earth was a globe and that by sailing *west* one could at last reach the East. He reasoned that the same ocean which bounded Portugal on the west must also lap the shores of Cathay on the east.

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[1] About the year 1000 A. D. a Norseman sailing from Norway was thrown out of his course by rough seas. He came upon land of which Europeans had had no knowledge. There he "found wheat and vines growing."

The seaman was Leif Ericson — perhaps the first European to discover the continent of "America." He landed there, and three years later his companions — Thorfinn Karlsefin and several others — went back and explored the region. They named it Wineland the Good. This land probably lay between Labrador and New England. Indeed so sure are some people that Ericson landed in New England that monuments have been erected there in his honor. However, so far as we know, no further explorations and no settlements were made, and the Norse people lost knowledge of the new land except as the story was told in their sagas (songs). These sagas also told of other lands in the western continent — lands which today would probably be as far south as Chesapeake Bay and the Florida Strait. These stories, however, are perhaps not true.

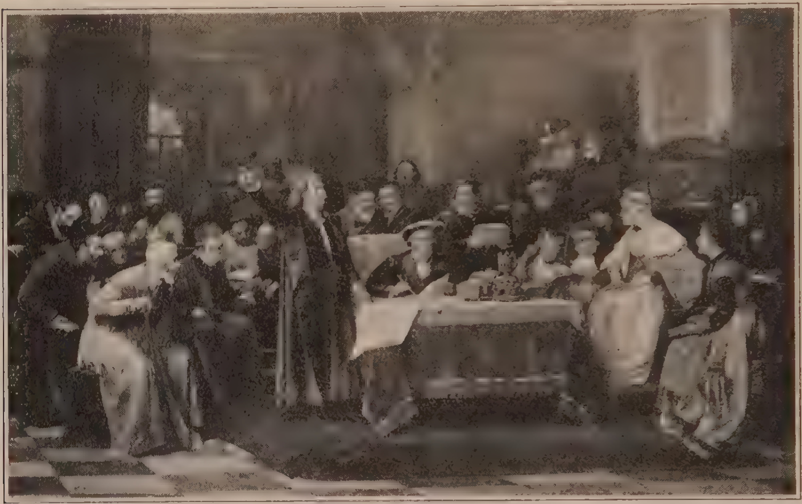

FIG. 14. Columbus in the court of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella. (From a painting by Brozik. Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art)

The more Columbus thought of this explanation, the more he became convinced of it. And if he, Christopher Columbus, the wool-weaver's son from Genoa, could sail westward and so find his way to the riches of Cathay and India, what man would be so rich or powerful or famous as he?

But he was poor. He needed gold — much gold — to buy ships, ships' stores and equipment, and to hire men for a voyage of many months.

The Prophet of the New Earth, as he has been called, spent years trying to make his glorious dream come true. For two years he tried to win the interest and support of King Ferdinand and Queen Isabella of Spain. At length, when discouragement nearly overcame him, the Queen decided to come to his aid. She too needed gold to carry on her work of making Spain a great and powerful nation, and she would be only too glad to gain the control of new routes to the East and of new lands on the way. She was not so sure as Columbus that he would be able to find the new route, but she was willing to risk money to let him try it.

Columbus's first trip in search of the treasures of the Indies

Over five years passed after the first meeting between Columbus and Isabella, and discouragement followed after discouragement, delay after delay. At last, however, the Spanish city of Palos was commissioned to find ships and men for the navigator. The great dream was to come true!

Columbus's next trouble was to get enough men to man his little boats. At one time it seemed that the jails would have to be opened and the criminals freed to make up the crews. But it was said that some of the jailbirds even preferred prison to death on the wild Atlantic!

At last seamen of Palos were forced to set sail with the "mad" Italian. Amid many angry mutterings of the sailors and the mourning of their families, the ships were put in readiness.

On August 3, 1492, at eight o'clock in the morning, three little ships — the Indians' "three White Birds" — slipped out of the harbor of Palos on the ebbing tide. What fragile ships to brave unknown seas! The largest, the flagship *Santa Maria*, was only a little boat of 100 tons with a deck length of only 163 feet. It carried the great Admiral, Columbus. (He had received the title of Admiral of the Ocean for whatever seas he might discover.) Even smaller than the flagship were the other two, the *Pinta* and the *Niña*, tiny caravels of 50 and 40 tons each.

The modern voyager would tremble with fear at the mere thought of setting sail on the Atlantic in one of those frail ships. The Admiral, however, knew neither doubt nor fear. His mind was on the great discovery which he felt sure awaited him.

Several times during the voyage there came false rumors of land, but time after time the men were disappointed. On October 11, however, there could be no doubt. Land at last!

> Thursday, 11th of October. They saw sandpipers, and a green reed near the ship. Those of the caravel *Pinta* saw a cane and pole, and they took up another small pole which appeared to have been worked with iron; also another bit of cane, a land plant, and a small board. The crew of the caravel *Niña* also saw signs of land, and a small branch covered with berries. Everyone breathed afresh and rejoiced at these signs.[1]

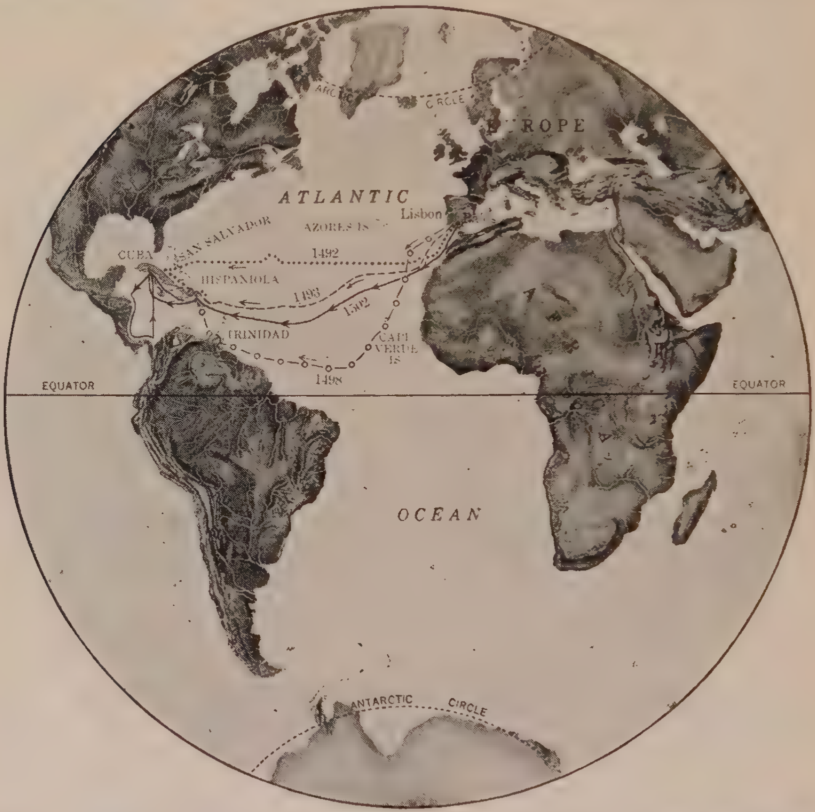
ARCTIC CIRCLE
EUROPE
ATLANTIC
Lisbon
AZORES IS
SAN SALVADOR
CUBA
1492
HISPANIOLA
1493
1502
TRINIDAD
CAPE VERDE IS
1498
EQUATOR
EQUATOR
OCEAN
ANTARCTIC CIRCLE

FIG. 15. The routes taken by Columbus on his four voyages — 1492, 1493, 1498, and 1502. Cuba, San Salvador, and Hispaniola are part of the group of islands known as the West Indies

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[1] Julius E. Olson (Editor), "The Journal," in *The Northmen, Columbus, and Cabot, 985–1503* (Original Narratives of Early American History Series), pp. 108–109. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1906.

For more than two months the little group had been sailing into the unknown, western sea. More than two months of life on the endless water had nearly destroyed the courage of the bravest seamen. They had been withdrawing from their own land, farther and farther from help, and they were existing on provisions which could not be renewed once they were exhausted. No wonder the sailors were afraid.

But now they believed. Columbus was right.

As he studied his maps, Columbus decided that this land was one of a small group of islands off the coast of the Indies (island groups to the south of China). He saw copper-colored men on the shore and these he called *indios*, or men of the Indies. (Hence our name *Indians* for the natives of the American continents.)

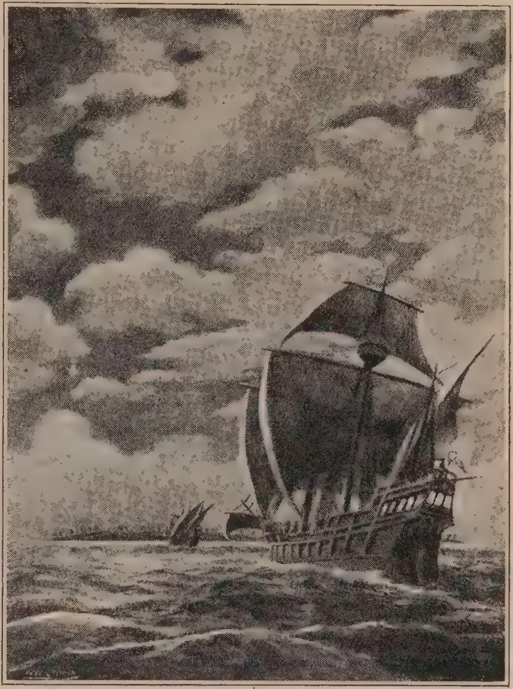

FIG. 16. Columbus sights the New World. (From a painting by Peter Hurd)

But the unfortunate dreamer was mistaken in his calculations. He believed that the world was smaller than it actually is, and he also estimated that Asia was much larger. Thus, although he did not know it, he was still more than eight thousand miles from the Spice Islands and Cathay. He had discovered a group of small islands which we now call the West Indies. (See figure 15.) They fringed two unknown continents.

It was a great discovery, greater than his wildest dream, but Columbus never knew it. He died years later without learning how far his great plan had brought him.

The first task of the newly arrived adventurers was to explore and search for gold. Columbus must have gold and spices, or he would lose all. Ferdinand and Isabella had demanded a profit on their investment, and, therefore, although this land was so different from all that he had ever heard of the rich East, he insisted that they had reached the Indies (meaning the islands near China) and were about to find great quantities of gold. In his *Journal* he wrote:

> Monday, 12th of November. Without doubt, there is in these lands a vast quantity of gold, and the Indians I have on board do not speak without reason when they say that in these islands there are places where they dig out gold, and wear it on their necks, ears, arms, and legs, the rings being very large. There are also precious stones, pearls, and an infinity of spices.[1]

After about four months spent in the islands, Columbus took the long return journey to Spain. There he was royally welcomed. The King and Queen were greatly pleased with his report. His supply of gold was small, it was true. Nevertheless, the monarchs were not much disappointed. The whole court was interested in the cotton, parrots, curious arms, strange plants, beasts, and birds which the Admiral had with him. Everyone gaped at the few bewildered, half-naked, dark-skinned natives who accompanied him.

This triumph of Columbus's was not to last long, however. There was jealousy at the court. Nobles whispered to one another that he had failed to find treasure. Before long there was dissatisfaction with his accomplishment; so again the brave dreamer returned to the new land. Four times between 1492 and 1502 he crossed the Atlantic to explore further.

Columbus would have been bitterly disappointed had he known that it was a new continent that he had discovered. Surely these islands must be the rich Indies, the Eastern lands of fabulous wealth. To the day of his death Columbus believed that he had found the short route to India.

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[1] Julius E. Olson (Editor), "The Journal," in *The Northmen, Columbus, and Cabot, 985–1503* (Original Narratives of Early American History Series), p. 144. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1906.

"Gold is most excellent; gold is treasure and he who possesses it does all he wishes to do in this world and succeeds in helping souls into Paradise." Thus Columbus wrote to the King and Queen of Spain on his fourth voyage to the islands. Do not these seem to be the words of a disappointed man? Poor Columbus! His most diligent searches found but little of the gleaming metal. On his voyages of 1493, 1498, and 1502 he found new islands. He also found the mainland of Central and South America, but he never saw the coast of North America. He founded colonies at Hispaniola (Haiti) and Panama, but neither was very successful. Furthermore his failure to find gold saddened and embittered him. What a tragedy that he was not to know the true value of his discovery!

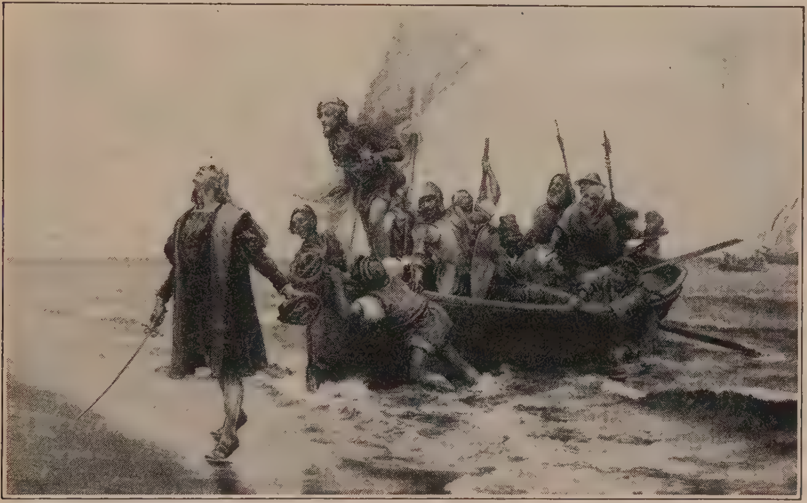

Fig. 17. After more than two months of sailing unknown seas, Columbus and some of his crew stepped ashore on equally unknown land. It was, in fact, a new world that they had found. (From a painting by Pietro Gabrini. Courtesy of the Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago)

Columbus left some of his men in the new continent to found more colonies in the name of Spain. These men were as eager for gold as he, and when they failed to find it they became greedy and cruel. They forced the natives, who had welcomed them as gods, to desert their farms, and to labor hard for gold. They enslaved the Indians and killed them. They had no thought of making homes in the colony or of developing agriculture there, for they came only for riches with which they might return to their mother country.

After the fourth unsuccessful voyage, Columbus never saw his new land again. For a time he was in disgrace in Spain. His health was broken and at last his courage was shaken. His great reputation was lost. In 1506 he died, a poor and heartbroken man.

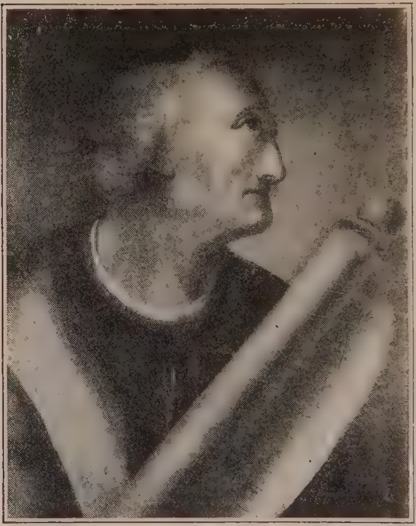

Fig. 18. Amerigo Vespucci. (Courtesy of the Massachusetts Historical Society)

How the New World Columbus discovered came to be called America

Why did not the Europeans call the new land Columbia after its discoverer?

During the first years of discovery and exploration, you will remember, no one thought that new continents had been found. Columbus's voyages, however, created much interest in this new land. In 1495, when his sole right of exploration had expired, many other navigators sailed to the west. Until then no one but Columbus had had permission to explore these seas.

An Italian sea captain, named Amerigo Vespucci, claimed, in a letter written in 1503, that he had discovered a new continent, and that Columbus had not discovered the short route to India. He claimed to have made three trips across the Atlantic. On the first, in 1497, he claimed to have reached the Pacific Ocean and to have sailed north as far as British Columbia and in the last as far south as to within 13 degrees of the south pole.

This letter was printed in nine editions throughout Europe. Vespucci himself remarked therein that "it was right to call Amerigo's discovery a new world because it had not been seen before by anyone." It appeared in a Latin translation which still exists. A German professor suggested four years later that this new continent be called "America, because Americus [the Latin form of Amerigo] discovered it." As time went on, Europeans in general came to refer to the new land as America.

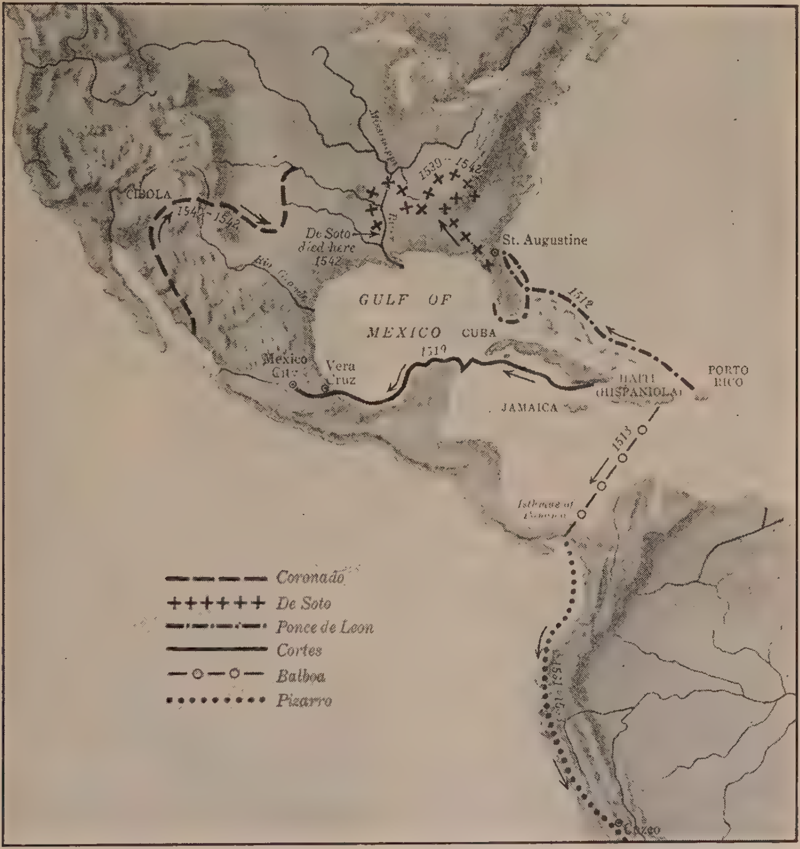
CIBOLA
1540-1542
Mississippi River
1539-1542
De Soto died here 1542
St. Augustine
1513
GULF OF MEXICO
CUBA
1519
Mexico City
Vera Cruz
HAITI (HISPANIOLA)
PORTO RICO
JAMAICA
1513
Isthmus of Panama
1531
Cuzco
Coronado
De Soto
Ponce de Leon
Cortes
Balboa
Pizarro

FIG. 19. Columbus claimed for Spain the lands he had discovered. Many Spanish explorers followed his path across the Atlantic. Among the most noted explorations were those made by Balboa, Ponce de Leon, De Soto, Cortes, Pizarro, and Coronado

It is the opinion of most scholars today, however, that Vespucci did not make the voyage of 1497 and did not explore the South American coast then. Whatever be the truth, the vast continents were not given the name of the brave man who discovered them. That honor went to Amerigo Vespucci.

Other Spanish Explorers searched along the Mainland of the New Continents

1. Ponce de Leon explores Florida, 1513

Twenty-one years had passed since Columbus first set eyes on the New World. During that time colonies were being founded on the islands of the West Indies by other Spanish explorers who followed his path. From the islands they even ventured to the mainland, continuing the search for gold.

One of these was Juan Ponce de Leon, the Spanish governor of Porto Rico, who had accompanied Columbus on his second voyage. In 1512 he became interested in exploring the mainland itself. He had heard of an island called "Bimini" where he might find something more wonderful than gold — a fountain containing the precious waters of youth. Ponce de Leon was growing old and he ardently longed to restore his lost youth.

He sailed north and westward in search of the fountain. Before many days he came in sight of a beautiful land. It was spring and everywhere were flowers and bright green leaves. For its very loveliness Ponce de Leon named the land — which he believed to be an island — Pascua Florida (Flowering Easter). Then, after some exploration, he returned to Porto Rico.

But the lovely land continued to haunt his memory with its beauty. . . . Was it an island or was it a part of the mainland? . . . What a place it would be to live! One could be always happy there, and rich, and always young, perhaps. Could it be there that the fountain of eternal youth bubbled, the waters of which, so men said, kept one ever young? . . . To be forever young and happy in the land of flowers! A fascinating idea for a man no longer young.

Nine years passed from the time of Ponce de Leon's first sight of that lovely land. At last in 1521 it drew him back. He took other men with him to found a colony, but he reckoned without the Indians of Florida. They opposed his march. . . . A fight! . . . Indian arrows! The leader was mortally wounded. Always rich and young and happy? Poor, deluded Ponce de Leon! The wound of an Indian arrow had ended his dreams.

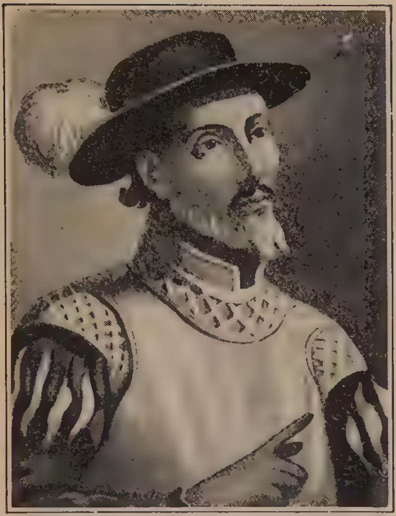

Fig. 20. Ponce de Leon first explored Florida in 1513 searching for the Fountain of Youth. During a second visit in 1521 he was killed by Indians

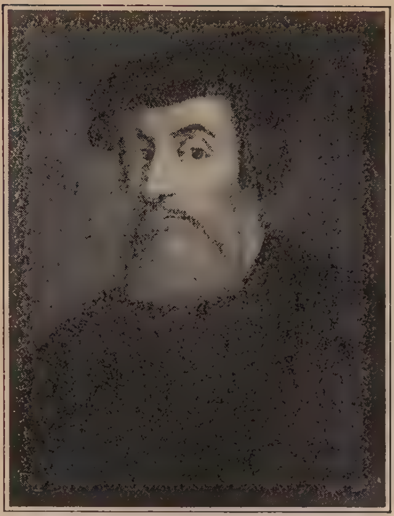

Fig. 21. In the name of Spain Cortes explored Mexico and conquered the Aztecs in 1520. For over 300 years Mexico was governed by Spanish rulers

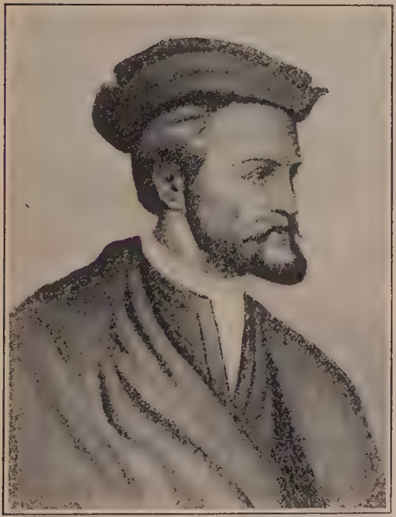

Fig. 22. Jacques Cartier, searching, in 1534, for the northwest passage to India, discovered the mouth of the St. Lawrence River

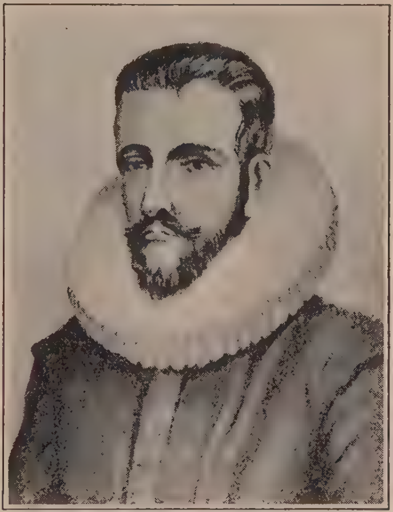

Fig. 23. Henry Hudson in 1609 explored the northern half of the eastern coast of North America and discovered the river which bears his name

2. Balboa is the first European to discover the western shores of the Pacific Ocean

It is the year 1513. Other explorers are continuing the search for the gold and precious things of the New World. In the minds of each of them there is still the hope that the short way to India may be discovered.

Vasco Núñez de Balboa, a bold Spanish soldier, is making preparations to hew his way across the mainland of Central America to the Southern Sea of which he has been told. Southward along that coast, he has heard, lies a country rich in gold.

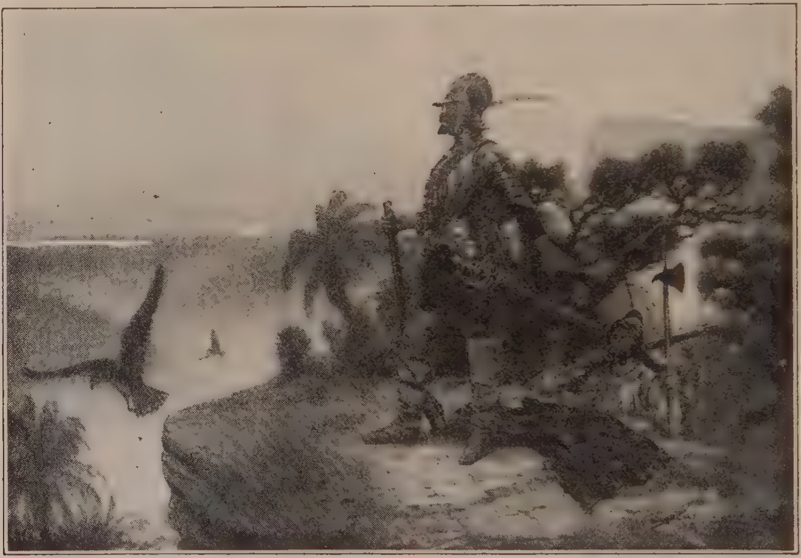

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Fig. 24. Bidding his companions stay behind, Balboa mounted the summit of Darien. Below him lay the Pacific Ocean

A native chief, perceiving his greed for wealth, had said to him: "I will show you a region flowing with gold, where you may satisfy your ravening appetites. When you are passing over those mountains (and he pointed with his finger to the south), you will see another sea where they sail with ships as big as yours."[1]

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[1] Peter Martyr, "De Rebus Oceanicis." From Edward Gaylord Bourne's *Spain in America*, p. 109 (Harper & Brothers, New York, 1904).

Now Balboa was in trouble with the King. Complaints of treason had been lodged against him and he was condemned and summoned back to Spain. In despair he decided to attempt to win back royal favor by accomplishing a fine brave deed for Spain. Whether he longed more to be the first European to glimpse that great body of water, or whether he longed more for the gold of which the chief had spoken, who shall say?

It is a difficult trip of 45 miles through the tropical forests, those dark forests of huge trees festooned so thickly with vines and creepers. Even with the ax the Spaniards can scarcely break through. Lovely tropical flowers, brilliant birds, chattering monkeys, and poisonous reptiles — what a place it is for adventurers like these! So across the narrow Isthmus of Darien (now called the Isthmus of Panama), which joins the two great continents of North and South America together, the Europeans cut their way through the forests.

The jungle is safely passed, but high mountains bar the path. Beyond them lies unknown land, perhaps filled with gold. Still farther lies the unknown sea washing equally unknown shores. Hard though it is, the mountains must be crossed. When the tops are in sight, Balboa orders his men to remain behind. They are not to have the honor of gazing first upon the ocean. Alone he climbs to the summit, and there before him as far as he can see lie endless waters — another ocean! He names it the Great South Sea. Thus Balboa discovers that a great body of water still separates the Spaniards from China. He does not dream, however, that China is far away, twice the distance he has already traveled from Spain.

3. Hernando Cortes finds and conquers the Aztec kingdom in Mexico, 1519–1520

Hernando Cortes is another early arrival in the New World. He has left home at nineteen to join the search for gold and has wandered to Cuba. Not long after, news comes to Cuba of the discovery of a great kingdom to the north (where Mexico now is). No settlement has been made by the Spaniards, however, and the governor of Cuba is angry at the delay. He intrusts the conquest of the new territory to young Cortes.

On November 18, 1518, Cortes sails from Santiago, Cuba, with ten vessels and 600 or 700 men. He lands in Mexico in March, 1519, his horses, ships, and cannon creating great astonishment and fright among the natives. They believe that Cortes is a god, and are easily captured. They lead him to the capital city, where he is received with great pomp by the Chief-of-Men, Montezuma. (See figure 11.)

Cortes immediately strengthens his position and schemes to seize the riches he sees everywhere about him. Suddenly one of the Spaniards is killed, and the Aztecs discover that these "gods" are not immortal. Knowing that he is in great danger, Cortes acts at once by seizing Montezuma. The Chief-of-Men gives him a great treasure of gold and gems as ransom.

Cortes has scarcely received the treasure when other Spaniards come from Cuba to arrest him. He marches against them and defeats them. Their men then join Cortes, and together they return to the capital, where a revolt has broken out. Cortes is attacked by the desperate Aztecs with such fury that he withdraws to a point south of the city, where a battle takes place. The Aztecs are finally defeated, and the glory of the Aztec empire is ended. Henceforth, for more than 300 years, Spanish rulers are to govern in Mexico.

4. About the same time Magellan proved that Columbus was right: the world is round!

In 1522 the world learned that Columbus had been right in thinking that by sailing west he could reach the East. A Spanish ship which had sailed *west* from Seville in 1519 returned from the *East*, having sailed around the world.

Magellan, a Portuguese navigator sailing under the flag of Spain, accomplished this most extraordinary feat. He was an experienced seaman who had sailed to Java, Cochin China, the Spice Islands, and other Eastern lands. He thought that there might possibly be a strait at the extreme end of South America. By sailing through this, he believed he might more quickly reach the Spice Islands. He won the interest of the King of Spain, who agreed to help him carry out his plan.

In August, 1519, he left Seville, Spain, with about 270 men and five small ships. He sailed south and west until he reached the South American coast. Then, sailing along the coast, he reached Patagonia in March, the beginning of winter in the Southern Hemisphere. (See figure 25.) There he stayed until the weather was fair enough to round the tip of the continent. In November, 1520, he sailed through the strait which now bears his name and came into the ocean which Balboa had called the Great South Sea. Magellan renamed it the *Pacific Ocean.* He was the first to find his way to Asia by the western route.

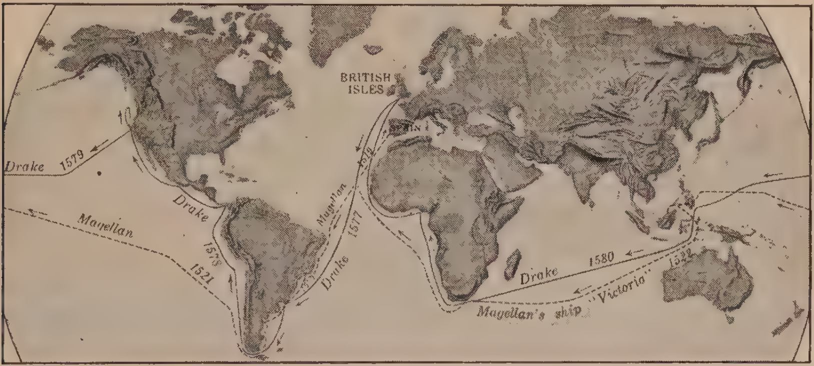

FIG. 25. Magellan was the first to discover the great length of the eastern coast of South America. Drake was the first to discover the long western coast of North America. It was the explorations of these two daring adventurers which gave the European world knowledge of the vast continents that lay west between Europe and Asia and proved that the earth is round

For many months he continued westward on the Pacific, until by March, 1521, he had reached the Philippine Islands. There he stayed for some time and made friends with the natives. One of the chiefs pretended to become a Christian. He told Magellan that he wished to conquer and convert the tribe of the neighboring island to the Christian religion and asked Magellan to help him.

The gallant navigator agreed and with his men battled with the native tribesmen whom the chief pretended he wished to convert. In the battle the great captain was killed, and later one of his admirals and several other leaders were murdered by the treacherous chief. But Magellan had already reached and passed the longitude of the Moluccas (Spice Islands), where he had previously been, and had proved that it was possible to sail around the world, for the way home from the Philippines was well known to the Portuguese.

The surviving sailors burned one of the three remaining vessels and sailed on homeward, through the Indian Ocean, around Africa, and into the Atlantic. One ship with 31 men survived the trip around the world and arrived in Seville in 1522.

5. Another Spanish explorer, Francisco Pizarro, conquered the Incas, the "Children of the Sun," 1527–1537

Among the soldiers who had accompanied Balboa on his famous trip across the Isthmus of Panama in 1513 was Francisco Pizarro, a poor adventurer who had come to America in the early days after Columbus's discovery. He had settled down to be a cattle farmer in Panama; but there was not much gold in raising cattle, so Pizarro formed a partnership with two other Spaniards and made an exploring trip down the coast to the southwest.

As a result of the discoveries made on this trip, he appealed to the Spanish governor of that region for permission to explore the territory further. The governor refused. He then asked the King of Spain, who not only consented but gave the rough soldier the rank of viceroy of the province of "New Castile." That was the name to be given to any new regions Pizarro might find within a radius of 200 leagues along the coast.

With 200 men and 27 horses, Pizarro sailed southward on the west coast, coming to Peru in 1527, where he was kindly received by the ruling Inca. Pizarro showed little gratitude for his welcome, however. He treacherously captured the ruler and a few months later had him murdered. Then Pizarro entered the town of Cuzco and took it in the name of Spain.

One of Pizarro's partners sailed farther south to explore what is now Chile. During his absence from Peru the Indians revolted and made a brave attempt to expel the invaders. For two months the Spaniards were attacked in the capital. Then the exploring party returned and defeated the Indians in 1537. The siege was raised, and Cuzco became a Spanish city.

Soon the Inca Indians were enslaved and compelled to work for the Spanish rulers. Ships began to sail back to Spain laden with valuables, and an enormous treasure of gold flowed into the coffers of the King of Spain from this Incan "Empire of the Sun." This was the land of which Balboa had heard but which he had never reached.

6. In the north of Mexico Coronado searched for the fabled cities of Cibola, 1540–1542

Meanwhile many Spanish monks had followed the conquistadors into the New World. These monks were exploring on their own account. They were planning to convert the Indians to the Christian religion. Up and down Central America and Mexico they wandered, sometimes far from the Spanish colonies. Some of them crossed the Rio Grande into the region of Arizona and New Mexico. When they returned they reported to the Spanish governors that they had seen important "cities" in this northern land.

Friar Marcos, who was one of these monks, reported that, after days of travel through the northern desert country, he saw a great city built on a high hill. He felt sure that the city must contain much treasure and bitterly regretted that unfriendly Indians had forced him back before he had been able to learn with certainty.

He had, however, taken care to build a mound of stones and to place a little cross at the top. By this act he had laid claim in the name of Spain to the city and to any other cities which he might have seen and had called them a part of the new kingdom of New Galicia, as the southwest region had been named.

In Mexico great interest was aroused by his tale. Coronado, the governor of one of the new provinces, set out to find these Seven Cities of Cibola, as the Spaniards began to call them. The expedition was very brilliant. The men were mounted on fine horses and were furnished with a train of provisions and droves of live stock. Several hundred friendly Indians accompanied them, splendidly decked out in war paint.

Great was the disappointment of the men of this gay procession when they arrived at the spot named by Friar Marcos. No fabled wealth was there. The rich cities were only the villages of the Pueblo Indians. The historian of the expedition says: "When they saw the first village, which was Cibola, such were the curses that some hurled at Friar Marcos that I pray God may protect him from them. It is a little, crowded village, looking as if it had been crumbled all together." [1]

But Coronado and his men continued northward. Perhaps there was gold beyond. They crossed rivers and burning desert lands. They pushed on even to the great plain where the great herds of buffaloes grazed.

"This country," said the historian, "is like a bowl, so that when a man sits down, the horizon surrounds him all around at the distance of a musket shot."

All in the expedition were disappointed. They had traveled many miles and still there was no gold!

But they had made a remarkable trip. They had covered a vast distance over mountains, desert, and plains, through northern Mexico and the region of our own southwestern states. They had explored an unknown territory and claimed vast lands for Spain. (See figure 19.)

7. Hernando de Soto penetrated far into the northern unknown wilderness and discovered the Mississippi River in 1541

At almost the same time that Coronado's troop was traveling north from Mexico City, another band of Spanish soldiers, 600 strong, had found their way to Florida. In 1539 this band began to move westward. Turning their backs upon the Atlantic they plunged into the wilderness, cut their way through forests, and explored what is now southeastern United States in search of gold.

None of them knew, but many feared, that they would meet terrible monsters in this land never seen by white men. Ferocious natives might kill them as they had killed Ponce de Leon. Every swamp, every river, every woodland, every hill, threatened defeat and death. Yet the band kept on and on. Their leader, Hernando de Soto, had vowed to send no news of himself until he had reached rich new country.

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[1] Herbert E. Bolton, *The Spanish Borderlands*, p. 90, Vol. XXIII of The Chronicles of America series. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1921.

Two years passed while this courageous group worked its way north and southwest through the wilderness. From Florida they crossed westward along the southern edges of the Appalachian Mountains. Some of the way was too rough to be crossed on horseback. Streams and even some lakes had to be swum. Many men died from the hardship, but at last the band reached a broad level plain. Then, in 1541, a great river came into view. It was the Mississippi — the river which the Indians had named the Father of Waters.

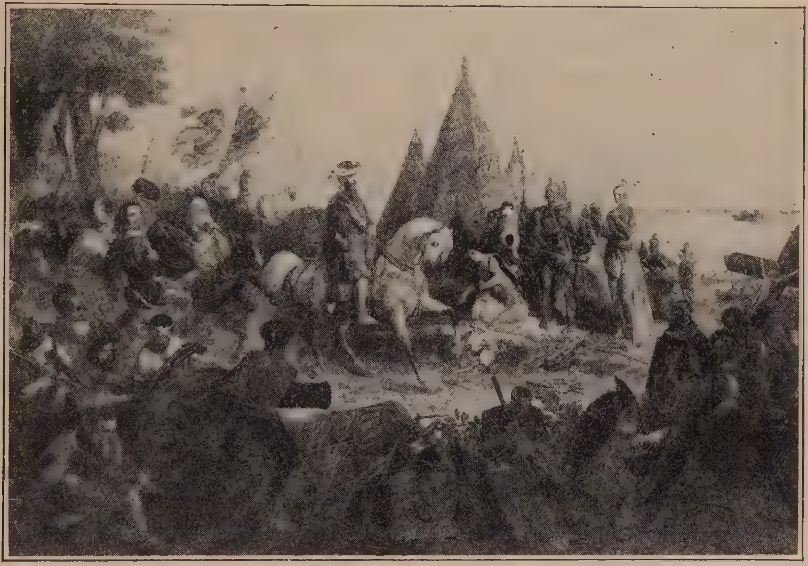

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FIG. 26. After two years of exploration in the wilderness, Hernando de Soto discovered the Mississippi River. (From a painting by W. H. Powell in the Capitol, Washington)

Undaunted, although very ill, De Soto crossed the river and kept up his search for gold. A year later his strength failed, and he died. His men buried his body in the great river, so that the Indians might not learn that he was mortal. Christians could not die, the Indians had been told!

THE SPANISH EXPLORERS IN THE NEW LAND LOOKED ONLY FOR GOLD AND FAILED TO SEE ITS OTHER TREASURES

What would the Spanish explorers — Columbus, De Soto, Coronado, Cortes, Ponce de Leon — think if they could revisit the lands they explored in the New World? Suppose that Columbus were to revisit today the lands he found in his four voyages; he would doubtless rub his eyes in amazement.

In Porto Rico, Santo Domingo, Haiti, and Central America he would see men cultivating vast plantations of sugar cane, tobacco, and coffee where he searched for gold. He would see men boring holes in the ground in Central America. What are they bringing up to the surface? Not yellow metal but dark streams of petroleum. Liquid Gold, a rich treasure!

It would be hard for Columbus to believe that the real treasure of the New World was not in gold alone but in other minerals and in plants!

De Soto would be no less amazed to see that the wealth of the land that he had so painfully crossed was in rich soil and level land for growing crops. Cortes would find that the golden wealth of Montezuma had been replaced by the wealth of oil and copper and other minerals. Would Coronado feel disgusted with himself could he learn that white men are digging wealth out of Cibola in the base metals of lead, zinc, tin, and copper?

Possibly Ponce de Leon could find in Florida his fountain of youth, for a warm, balmy climate has made Florida the winter playground of the well-to-do of the northern part of our country.

The desire for gold and gems had brought disappointment and sorrow to most of the Spanish explorers. In their search for them they were made blind to greater treasures which lay hidden, waiting for men to find them.

Later other men, who knew the value of a good climate, of rich natural resources, of people to work the land, and of scientific knowledge, would find the treasure which the explorers failed to find.

Let us turn back a little. While the Spanish explorers searched for riches in the New World the story of Columbus reached England

JOHN CABOT TRIED TO FIND THE NORTHERN ROUTE TO THE EAST, 1497

A year after Columbus first set foot upon the soil of the New World, London streets were ringing with his praises. England's seamen were filled with admiration for his daring. He had discovered a new land. Could not they, too, share in the glory?

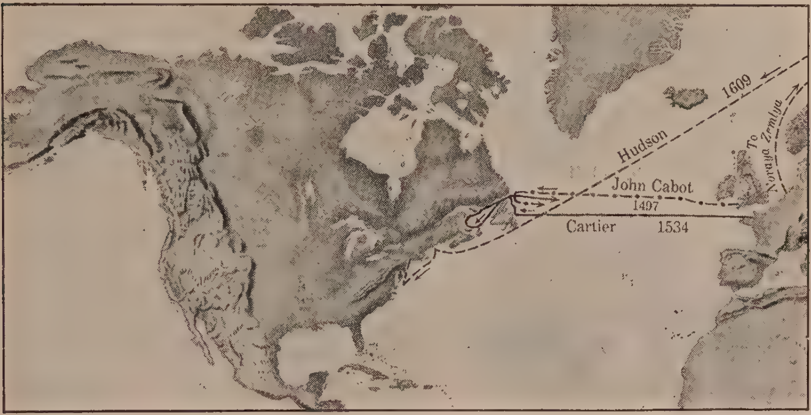

FIG. 27. The routes of Cabot, Cartier, and Hudson show how the coast of North America was being explored by Europeans other than the Spanish

Many were fired with the desire to look for the western passage to the East. Columbus had sailed south, and had not yet found it. Perhaps by sailing north an easy passage might be found. Perhaps England's seamen could do it! If they could, then England could threaten her rival, Spain. Her ships too could carry treasure to all the ports of Europe.

Four years passed. It was 1497. The court session in London was over. John Cabot, another Italian navigator, stood reading again and again the letters patent (authority) which he held from King Henry VII of England. At last he was to undertake the voyage he had long desired. Here was a commission of exploration from the English King. It read:

> To our well-beloved John Cabot, citizen of Venice, to Lewis, Sebastian and Santius, sonnes of the said John, full and free authority, leave and power . . . to sail to all Parts, Countries and Seas, of the East, of the West, and of the North . . . to seeke out, discover, and finde whatsoever Isles, Countries, Regions, or Provinces of the Heathen and Infidels, which before this time have been unknown to all Christians.

Armed with the King's authority, it was not difficult to find in Bristol, the English city of sailors, five ships and men to sail them. In the spring of 1497 "John the Skipper," as Cabot called himself, and his son Sebastian, sailed westward into the unknown, northern ocean. On and on they went. On the 24th of June, 1497, the lookout sighted land. At last, thought Cabot, we have found the way to the country of the Great Khan of Cathay.

Hurriedly he skirted the coast, passing what we now think was Nova Scotia, and perhaps Labrador and Newfoundland. He landed and claimed the territory in the name of England's king. Not waiting to explore inland, he hastened back to England with his great news.

Immediately Cabot became the "hero of the hour, and great honors were paid him." (It is said that Henry VII gave Cabot £10 ($50) for the discovery.) Everyone thought England had now discovered the islands of the Far East. She had found a northern route, and so was not interfering with the claims of Spain to the southern seas and lands.

English Pirates and Slave Traders threatened Spain in the New World

When England, France, Holland, and Portugal saw that Spain was becoming enormously wealthy, they were jealous of her growing power. Their rulers, therefore, did not discourage navigators who became sea robbers in order to steal Spanish gold. And pirates many of them did become!

Every month the shiploads of gold and other precious things that were taken from the Spanish colonies to the court in Madrid were a great temptation to the enemy ships that also sailed along the routes from the mother country to the colonies. Let any ship carrying rich treasures beware!

Two English leaders were particularly well known and feared for their daring piracy. They were Sir John Hawkins and Sir Francis Drake. Together they had made many voyages to the Canary Islands and up and down the African coast. Hawkins plundered Portuguese slave ships and sold the stolen cargo in the Spanish West Indies. Both had plundered Spanish ships and ports right and left. Had not Spain seized the gold mines of America? Was she not trying to bar England and other countries from trade with her colonies? Did she not forbid foreigners to dig for treasure in the new lands?

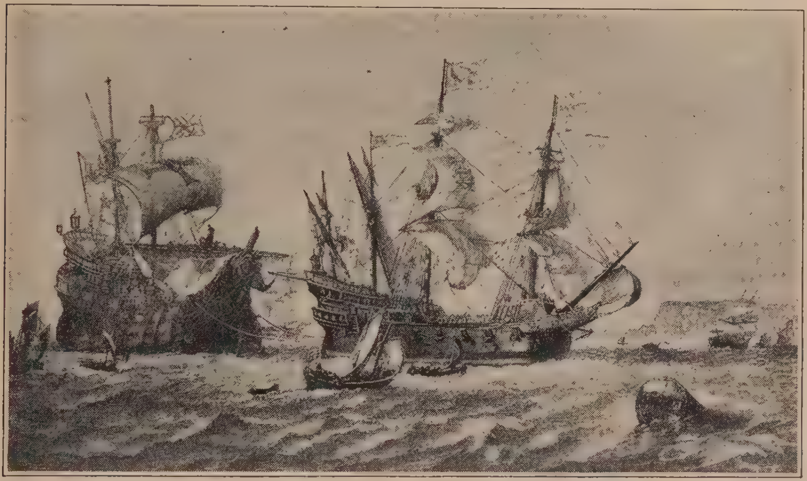

FIG. 28. One of Drake's ships bringing a captured Spanish vessel into an English port

In the 1560's, 1570's, and 1580's Hawkins and Drake sailed along the South American coast looking for adventure with the Spanish ships. In that part of northern South America today called Venezuela, Hawkins captured Indians, burned and robbed their towns, seized whatever there was of value, and brought back some of the natives and shiploads of stolen Negroes to be sold as slaves in the ports of Spain's West Indian colonies.

Francis Drake was perhaps the most daring of the English sea robbers — the terror of Spanish captains. Many a large galleon he sank. He made one trip after another along the South American coast. In the end he passed through the strait at the "Horn" (Cape Horn) and sailed around the world.

In 1578 he sailed up the west coast of South America past what is now called Chile, looking for a well-known Spanish ship bearing great riches from the kingdom of the Incas. All along the coast he had been plundering Spanish vessels. The Spanish settlers were in dismay. They said to one another: "Who would have dreamed that these English sea dogs would find our hidden land. Until now only we have known the way. Yet here is this terrible Drake with his *Golden Hind* heavy with the gold he has stolen from us. He has plundered every port from the Isthmus to Valparaiso."

With his wealth safe in the hold, Drake sailed northward on the Pacific until he reached what is now the San Francisco Bay in California. He claimed the land for Elizabeth and named it New Albion. He was welcomed by the Indians and was made their "king." They urged him to make his home with them, but he could not stay. He must go home. But by what route? Back among the Spanish ships along the coast of South America and around the Horn as he had come, or across the unknown Pacific? He decided that the lesser evil was the unknown sea.

Month after month he sailed the Pacific and Indian oceans as Magellan had done years before him. Finally he rounded the Cape of Good Hope at the southern tip of Africa and turned north for England. After an absence of two years and ten months he and his *Golden Hind* were safe in the home port once more.

Queen Elizabeth knighted him for his services to the crown, making him Sir Francis Drake in 1580. His "services" had consisted in robbing the ships of her enemy, Philip II of Spain! Then true to the custom of European rulers in those days, Elizabeth expressed to Philip II her sorrow for these deeds!

French Explorers also joined the Search for the Passage to the East Indies

As early as 1524 Francis I of France had commissioned Giovanni da Verrazano, an Italian navigator, to search for the northwest passage which Cabot had sought. He also failed in his search but has the honor of having made the first explorations in the New World in the name of France.

Jacques Cartier thought that he had found the northwest passage to India, but instead he had found the St. Lawrence River

Francis I watched the growing power of Spain and Portugal with a jealous eye. To the Spanish King, he said: "Your Majesty and the King of Portugal have divided the world between you, offering no part of it to me. Show me, I pray you, the will of our Father Adam, so that I may see if he has really made you his only universal heirs."

One day the French sea captain, Jacques Cartier, strolled restlessly about the streets of his little home town, St. Malo. Someone had repeated the witty remark which his King, Francis I, had made.

It set him to wondering. Would anything come of His Majesty's interest in the new lands of the west? Francis I realized that Spain and Portugal were gaining vast riches from the Americas. Did he also realize what they had done to obtain them? Jacques Cartier believed that he could tell his King a great many things.

Cartier knew by experience that every time a new port was opened in the world, these trading sailors took a firm grip on it. They claimed surrounding territories in the name of their kings. They made friends of the natives and traded with them. It was profitable business — this exploring and trading!

But by this time the Spaniards had taken all the West Indies, most of South America, and part of the Northern Continent. Portuguese explorers had seized the lands of what is now called Brazil. The English too, he had heard, had claimed lands in the northwest seas. The Dutch were waiting for a chance to gain riches in the west. France was also a powerful nation, yet what were these others doing to her trade?

So ran the thoughts of Jacques Cartier as he turned to enter his home which overlooked the sea. Many times he had asked the King to let him undertake a trip to the west, where he would found a New France in the New World. The King, however, had listened to advisers who did not want Jacques to have the commission. Jacques was almost in despair.

Then came a messenger hurrying toward him along the street. He thrust some papers into his hands. They were stamped with the royal seal. Hastily Jacques tore them open. He could hardly believe his good fortune. The King had finally come to his senses. He had decided after all that France must join the search for new lands and for the northwest passage to the East. He, Jacques Cartier, was the man chosen by Francis to perform this service for his country, and at once he began his preparations.

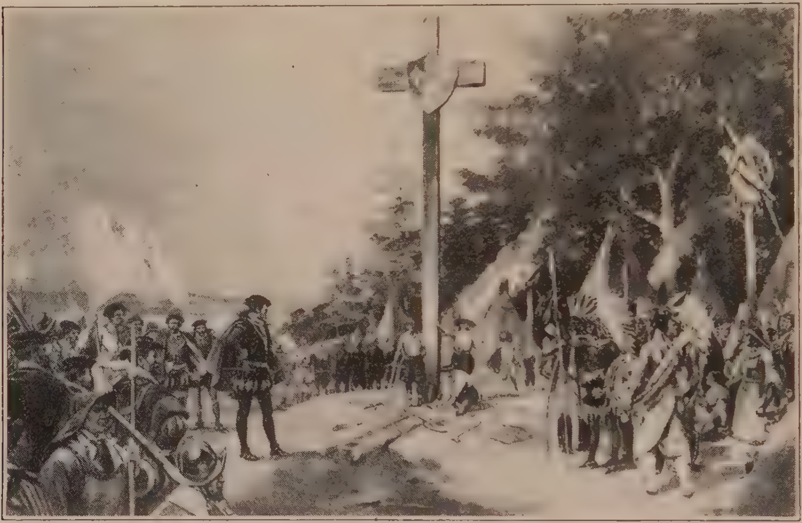

FIG. 29. In 1534 the first French claim was made to the land in the New World. Cartier is pictured planting the French cross on Canadian soil

In May, 1534, some time after the commission came, Cartier was on the other side of the Atlantic. As he explored the lands along the shore that he had just claimed for France (see figure 27) he wrote:

> We went coasting along toward the North . . . where we found a goodly great gulf, full of islands, passages, and entrances, toward what wind soever you please to bend: for the knowledge of this gulf there is a great island that is like to a cape of lands, stretching somewhat further North than the others, and about two leagues within the land, there is an hill fashioned as it were an heap of corn. We named the said gulf Saint Lawrence, his bay. . . .
>
> Moreover, I believe that there were never so many whales seen as

> we saw the day about the said cape. . . . We bended toward the North purposing to go and see the land that we before had spied. Being arrived there . . . our wild men told us that there was the beginning of the great river Hochelaga and ready way to Canada.[1]

Jacques Cartier was full of enthusiasm for the new land when he returned to France. With royal consent he made two more trips to "Saint Lawrence, his bay," and on the last one took along supplies for the building of a little town on the St. Lawrence River. At last he was about to accomplish his great purpose of giving France a foothold on the continent of America!

But the King did not give Jacques and his men enough help. These Frenchmen were far from all the necessities of life as they had known them at home, and soon they began to lose heart and finally gave up their struggle to open the wilderness for France. Those who yet lived went back to France soon afterward. For many years the shores of the great St. Lawrence were undisturbed except when a little fleet of merchants seeking furs came occasionally to trade with the Indians.

Holland did not wish to be left out of the New World

Henry Hudson gave Holland a foothold in the New World by his discovery of the greatest harbor in the Americas

A century after Columbus died, Europeans were still searching the shores of the great land he had found. Some were still seeking an easy way to China. Others were looking for treasure. Still others — but they were few — were planning to make their homes there.

In March, 1609, an English navigator sailing under the Dutch flag explored the eastern coast of North America. (See figure 27.) He was hoping to find a waterway through the continent to the Far East. This English sailor was Henry Hudson, the captain of a little, brightly painted ship called the *Half-Moon*. The Dutch East India Company had enlisted him to help Holland take part in the westward exploration.

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[1] A. B. Hart, *American History told by Contemporaries*, Vol. I, pp. 110–112. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

One bright September morning in 1609 Hudson saw land that was (as recorded by one of his crew)

> very pleasant and high. . . . At three of the clock in the afternoon . . . came to three great rivers. So we sent out our boats to sound, and found that it was a very good harbour [New York harbor]. . . . The people of the country came aboard of us, making show of love, and gave us tobacco and Indian wheat. . . . They brought with them oysters and beans whereof we bought some. They have great tobacco pipes of yellow copper, and pots of earth to dress their meats in.
>
> The *fourteenth*, in the morning, being very fair weather, the wind southeast, we sailed up the river [now the Hudson River] twelve leagues. . . . The river is a mile broad; there is very high land on both sides. . . . Then we went up northwest. . . . The land grew very high and mountainous. The river is full of fish.[1]

So it was that Henry Hudson found the harbor of New York, today the site of the most valuable port in the world. In 1609, however, no boats but Indian birch-barks and dugouts went in and out of its mouth and up the rivers around the Island of Manhattan.

The island, then called Mana-hata by the Indians, was "indeed a spot on which the eye might have reveled forever in ever-new and never-ending beauties." It was wild woodland. Only the Indians had ever disturbed the wild nature there. No skyscrapers, no paved streets, no trains roaring underground or overhead, disturbed the peace. Henry Hudson did not dream that this space would one day be but part of a great city.

Master Henry was not altogether disappointed in his search, however. He felt that he had discovered a land ideal for settlement, and as soon as he got back to Holland he would urge his company to send people to the island to build a town at the fine harbor.

Holland was the only country that was stirred by Hudson's return. The Dutch people were delighted at the prospect of owning a part of the New World. All the other nations were interested in their own great explorations and were even planning to make settlements in America.

[1] G. M. Asher, *Henry Hudson, the Navigator; the Original Documents in which his Career is recorded.* Printed for the Hakluyt Society, London, 1790.

THE EARLY EXPLORERS FOUND THE CONTINENTS OF NORTH AND SOUTH AMERICA, BUT DID NOT GREATLY CHANGE THEM

One by one the trading nations of Europe sent their adventurers to North America. The explorers visited the shores, wondered at the strange sights and the savages who met them there, and put back to sea. Nearly all misunderstood the real importance of their discoveries.

Meanwhile tides were washing away their footprints on the sandy shores. New growths of grass and flowers covered the spots where they had made their temporary camps. All through the 1500's most of the northern part of the great continent remained primitive and silent, as though untrod by the feet of Europeans. The Indians wondered at the white man's disappearance — as mysterious as his coming.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

BEARD, CHARLES A., and BAGLEY, WILLIAM C. Our Old World Background (Revised Edition). The Macmillan Company, 1925. See Chapter VIII, which tells of the European countries about the time Columbus discovered America, how the people lived, and why there were so many explorers at that time.

BURNHAM, SMITH. Our Beginnings in Europe and America. The John C. Winston Co., Philadelphia, 1918. The story of Europe from the ancient Greeks to the settlement of America. Chapter XI tells of the European people when America was discovered.

EILIAS, FRANK. First Voyages of Glorious Memory. Adam and Charles Black, London, 1911. These stories are of Columbus, Richard Chancellor, Frobisher, and others; thrillingly told.

GORDY, W. F. American Beginnings in Europe. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1925. The story of Europe from the time of the ancient Greeks to the settlement of America.

HIGGINSON, THOMAS W. Young Folks' Book of American Explorers. Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1877. Contemporary narratives of explorers from the Northmen and Columbus to the settlers of Plymouth. Slightly edited to make it more readable.

STOCKTON, FRANK R. Buccaneers and Pirates of our Coasts. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1898. Thrilling stories of buccaneers from the time of Columbus through the seventeenth century — Captain Kidd and many others.

CHAPTER III

DISCONTENTED EUROPEANS LOOKING HOPEFULLY TO AMERICA

To Europe, however, the Explorations of the New Continents made a Vast Difference

As a result of the knowledge of the New World brought back by the adventurers, men's thoughts began to extend beyond the narrow horizons of the Middle Ages. Many of them saw hope and promise for the future in the unknown world beyond the Atlantic.

Did they wish to escape laws that bound them, or rulers that oppressed them? . . . There was the great continent of North America waiting for settlement.

Were they ambitious to give up their small trading and risk their fortunes for larger returns from big enterprises? . . . There lay the New World with its opportunity for wealth and independence. Were they eager for freedom to worship God as they desired? . . . In the wilderness of North America they could set up their own churches unmolested by Catholic Pope or Anglican king.

After 1600, therefore, the men of Europe turned from exploration to settlement. We find them packing their belongings, selling their houses, and disposing of their estates — to venture all in the first settlements in North America. After this time increasing numbers of Englishmen, Germans, Hollanders, Frenchmen, and Swedes turned their backs upon Europe and cast their lot with the New World.

What led these Europeans to embark upon this unusual adventure?

To understand their reasons for going, let us look back into the lives of some of the emigrants from England. Let us look at the home of a small farmer-craftsman. There we can get a glimpse of the restlessness, the discontent, and uncertainty under which those people were living in the early 1600's.

Betsy, the buxom, red-cheeked wife of the yeoman Thomas Rogers bent over the big iron pot which hung in the fireplace. Steam and pleasant odors rose as she stirred the contents with a horn spoon. She and Thomas, after a hard day of labor in the fields, were about to sit down to their evening meal — a stew of lentils, cabbage, onions, and dried peas.

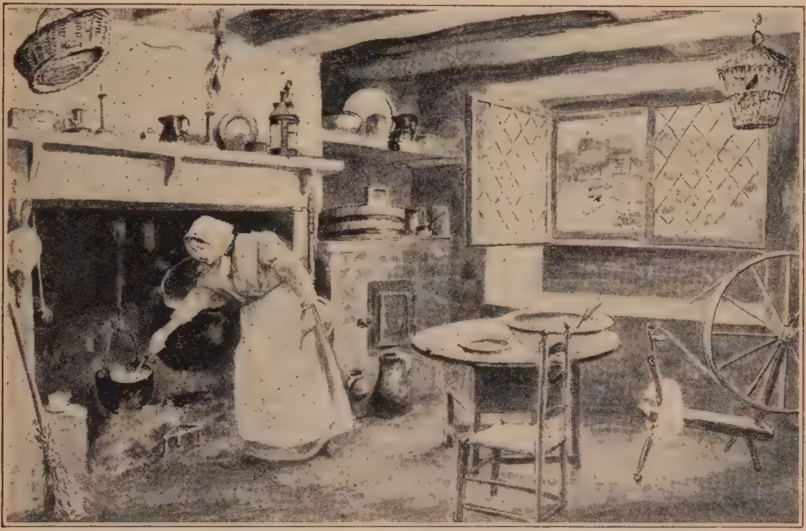

FIG. 30. The home of an English yeoman and his wife. Many people, like Betsy and Thomas Rogers in the story, sold the goods they could not take with them, and, packing the rest, set sail to make their homes in the New World

She straightened as Thomas entered the room, wiping her hot face on the corner of her apron.

"Hast put the lambs in the fold, Tom?" she asked.

"Aye, that I have, blast them!" exclaimed Thomas. "These silly sheep be the cause why we're having to leave our cozy cottage."

Betsy glanced about the one bare room. It looked like a palace to her at that moment, though it had no floor but the bare ground and the autumn wind howled dismally through the lattice. Every gust threatened to send the thatch roof flying.

Many times she had complained to Thomas that they would be homeless if a spark should light the thatch. But now that she had to leave it, her home seemed very dear to her.

"The squire's a hard man to drive us off our land," sighed Betsy.

"Aye, lass, we've worked hard at Kenelm Priory. 'Tis cruel to think a fine lass like you, born to the land, should be leaving it. Inclosing the commons, indeed!" he snorted. "An' my people, the Rogerses, have held it since the days of good King Alfred."

"Never ye mind, Tom," said Betsy consolingly. "There's not a better wood-carver in the whole shire than ye be. An' if I must say it, there's naught better than the wool I spin and weave. We'll not lack work in London."

"Nay, my dear," said Tom, shaking his head. "There be plenty of strong folk like you and me a-starving in London streets. There's not a task left for a body to turn a hand to."

"Well, old man," replied Betsy with spirit, "we'll not starve along with others. We've saved up a pretty penny. Ere we dawdle like timid folk hungry in London, we'll move to America. I'm thinking we'd not be long there before we'd have a cottage as pretty as this. What think ye?"

"Aye, lass, ye're a great one. I'd been thinking those very thoughts myself, but I didn't like to tell ye. I feared ye might be thinking of Redskins or the risk of going hungry there."

"If I must starve," retorted Betsy, "I'd rather be doing it in the new land. But methinks folk with strong backs like ours will not go hungry while there's good land to sow and reap. More likely we'll soon be rich there."

In many villages and towns of England cottagers and craftsmen, facing starvation, were discussing the same plans.

But it was not only the poorer artisans that talked of America in those trying days. Discontent was also spreading among the more well-to-do people of England. Dissatisfaction grew rapidly at the deeds of the tyrannical government of England. Everywhere there was unrest over religion as well as over politics. To understand that side of the conditions, we must glance at the religious changes that had taken place in Europe.

RELIGIOUS TROUBLE IN ENGLAND MADE MANY PEOPLE UNCOMFORTABLE AND UNHAPPY

For hundreds of years, throughout the Middle Ages, most of the people of Europe held the same religious beliefs. They belonged to the Roman Catholic Church, which was ruled over by the Pope. No one thought seriously of belonging to any other church. Protest against it would have been severely punished.

As early as the 1300's, however, people in England began to rebel against the authority of the Pope, for he had great control over the lives of the people in Europe. In other countries, also, as nations grew stronger, voices were raised against the Roman Church. By that time people of different countries were communicating more freely with one another. They were exchanging ideas and were trying to shake off old ways of thinking.

In 1519 a German monk named Martin Luther suggested that some of the ways in which the church was conducted be changed. The Pope promptly put him out of the church. Very trying and revolutionary years followed, and finally a new church, called the Lutheran Church, was founded in Germany. The beliefs of the new church spread not only through Germany, but in Holland and Scandinavia as well.

During the same years, in Switzerland, France, Scotland, and England, other new churches sprang up. A great movement for reform swept over Europe. This movement has been called by historians the Reformation. Kings and princes who had been partly under the rule of Rome took up the work of the church reformers. The new churches were called *Protestant* churches because they all were formed as protests against the Roman Catholic Church.

In England King Henry VIII did not at first take part in the Reformation. Later, however, serious quarrels arose between him and the Pope. The Pope refused to grant certain things which Henry asked of him. In the end Henry threw off his allegiance to Rome and declared the English church separate, with himself as the head. He called it the Church of England or the Anglican Church. This became the Established Church throughout England and all Englishmen were compelled to belong to it.

But many Englishmen were not entirely pleased with this new state of affairs. Some of the English Catholics who had never liked the Reformation felt that it was not right for King Henry to separate from the Pope of Rome. These people wanted to restore the old Catholic religion, so they refused to recognize the Anglican Church.

Many other Englishmen differed from the King in other ways. These people did not want to see the Roman Church restored, but they were not entirely satisfied with the new one. They felt that Henry's church was only a halfway measure. They wanted to do away with everything that resembled the Catholic Church. Their aim was to purify the church, so they called themselves *Puritans*.

Many people of the middle class in England joined these Puritans. Some of them who were very independent banded together to break away from the church entirely. These radicals were called *Dissenters*. They wanted to choose their own church officers and to worship very simply. Most of the Dissenters did actually form sects of their own. Many of them still exist today and are very influential throughout Europe and America.

For example, there was one group led by John Calvin, a Frenchman, living in Geneva, Switzerland, which found many followers in England, and especially in Scotland. Later they became known as *Presbyterians*.

Another sect, following the teaching of the Englishman George Fox, called themselves *Friends*. They were given the nickname *Quakers*, however, because their enemies said they quaked or trembled as they preached. These Friends believed that all men should live together in peace. They hated war and violence of any kind.[1]

There were two other important groups: one called *Baptists*, led by John Smith (or Smyth) of England; the other called *Methodists*, formed by John Wesley.

Naturally Henry VIII and his successors, who were responsible for the Church of England, looked with great dislike and distrust upon those who joined the new churches. Nor were the Catholics, who clung to the past, more popular than they. There was much religious trouble and persecution in England. Protestants hated and persecuted Catholics. Puritans disliked Anglicans. Anglicans persecuted both. People were thrown into prison. Others were beheaded or burned at the stake. Catholics, Friends, Presbyterians, Methodists, and Baptists were all hounded unmercifully.

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[1] It is interesting to note that Herbert Hoover, the thirty-first president of the United States, is a member of that organization today.

Many people of the wealthy middle-class trading group were among the Puritans. These people believed in living very sober, simple, hard-working, religious lives. When they learned that colonies might be formed in America, many of these people decided to seek peace and freedom overseas. Having some wealth, they were able to provide themselves with necessities for the trip, and to form prosperous colonies later.

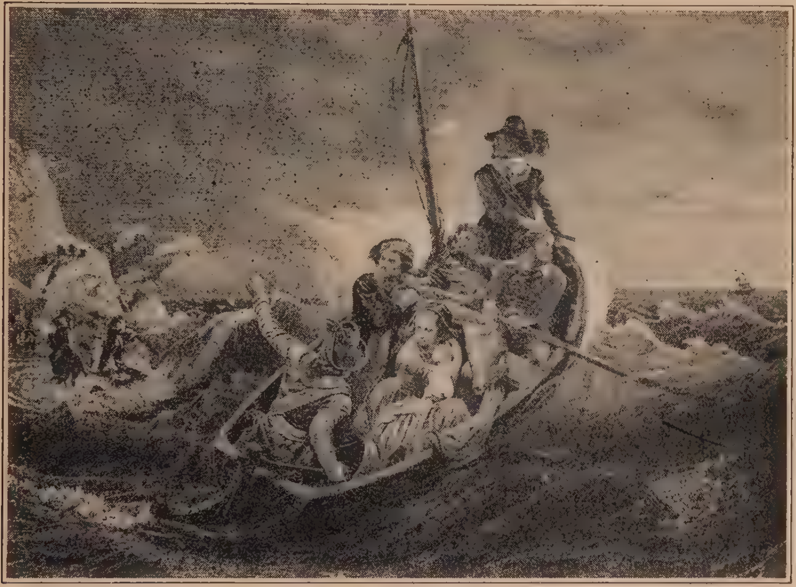

Fig. 31. Driven from England because of their religion, these people are rowing to the ships that will take them to America. (From an old engraving)

Let us glance into one of the Puritan homes when they and their friends were being persecuted.

"Cock-a-doodle-doo!" called the cock from the barnyard.

"Faith! Constance!" called Dame Ryner. "'Tis time to be stirring. Hasten!"

Faith opened sleepy eyes to see the same old, four-poster bedstead which had met her gaze since she could remember. She snuggled deeper into her feather bed and closed her lids again.

"Wake up, Faith! It must be past five and father will be angry if we are late for prayers," whispered Constance.

"Oh, bother!" exclaimed Faith as she jumped from bed and hastily started to dress.

In a few moments the two sisters ran downstairs to the drawing-room. They were just in time to see their father take down the heavy family Bible. The servants were drawn up in a line. John Ryner read from the Scripture. Then he said a long, long prayer. Faith could not help fidgeting before he had finished. She was so eager to be out of doors. At length Master Ryner dismissed the servants and turned to his wife.

"Prudence, I am going to look at the pastures which have just been drained. Do you take notice whether the fish ponds are well stocked."

Dame Ryner nodded, thinking of the many, many tasks awaiting her attention as mistress of the household.

Several hours later the two daughters were busily studying their A B C's when Constance whispered to Faith, "Patience Godwin is going to America."

"Oh, everybody's going. I wish we were too!" cried Faith.

"Sh-h-h!" whispered the governess. "Children should be seen, not heard."

Just then John Ryner's deep voice was heard from the doorway.

"How are my pets?" he called.

"Oh, father, did you know that Patience Godwin is going to America?"

"Is this true?" asked John of his wife, who was spinning in the pattern of light which came from the many leaded panes of the large window.

"I fear it is. Mistress Godwin has brought over her silver and asked me to keep it for her."

The father signaled to the governess to take the girls into the garden. He did not wish them to hear his conversation. Then he turned to his wife.

"It's becoming worse and worse," he sighed. "How much longer will this King persecute us? Bah! A King who takes from an honest man his hard-earned money! A King who throws away gold and pretends he is spending it on a navy to fight the Spanish! Worse yet, Bishop Laud has been appointed to hound us loyal Puritans out of the land. Government, religion, politics! That is all one hears today! A man must hold his tongue or lose his head. And our wonderful church meetings must be kept secret and our mouths closed! God grant the day may come when we can worship openly in peace."

"God grant it," echoed Prudence.

Faith and Constance rushed in from the garden.

"What is it, girls?" asked the father as they ran into the room.

"Oh, there's a Maypole at Mistress Deane's! How jolly it is! Such bright colors. Everyone is dancing and singing!"

"Constance! Faith!" said the mother sternly. "The Maypole is the devil's handiwork. Dancing is a sin in the sight of the Lord." To her husband she said: "We cannot have the girls living where sights so disgraceful occur. Oh, I wish we could live where people would fear God and be righteous."

"Let us look into the matter of going to America where we can live and worship as we please," replied John soberly. "We shall talk to the Godwins tonight."

Political Disturbances also racked England

The Godwins went, the Ryners went, and many other middle-class Englishmen went to America during those trying years. As you will learn later, it was these middle-class people who played the leading part in establishing the colonies of New England.

Nearly a quarter of a century later another group of Englishmen were unhappy at home. These people were of the country-gentleman class — people who had inherited wealth through their families for many generations. They believed that they were members of a privileged class, born to rule. They were proud of their wealth and their ancestors.

Unlike the Puritans, who believed in hard work, they loved to spend their time in hunting, gambling, and dancing. The Puritans thought that they spent money too freely and wastefully.

Religion was not so important to this group, either, as it was to the Puritans. They did not feel their duty to God very deeply, and church was largely a matter of form and custom. Nevertheless, they disliked the Dissenters and feared that the latter might get into power and make them change their ways of living.

These lordly people, therefore, supported the King and the Church of England. They ignored and despised all those who did not have position and wealth — merchants and business men as well as the poorer classes.

The hated business men, however, were not disturbed by the scorn of the gentleman class. As they accumulated wealth from their businesses, they gained more and more power in the government. England had had a Parliament, the law-making body, for many centuries, but until now these people could not become members. Now, however, they began to be numerous in Parliament and to play a strong part in the government by being elected to the House of Commons, which was the lower house of Parliament.

As these tradesmen became powerful enough, they objected to the high-handed methods used by the King and the House of Lords. For example, when James I (1603–1625) insisted upon levying heavy taxes to be spent as he pleased, the House of Commons protested. This was the beginning of a quarrel between the King and Parliament which was to last for over half a century. Charles I, the son of James, followed him on the throne. He also taxed the people heavily and spent their money extravagantly. Charles refused to yield to the demands of the Puritan Parliament, and a civil war finally broke out.

Then Parliament took matters into its own hands. Charles I was beheaded (1649), and Oliver Cromwell, a Puritan, became head of the government. The House of Commons desired to make England a republic and persecuted the gentleman class as the Puritans had been persecuted. The religious question was as bitter as ever. Cromwell tried to make the gentlemen landlords give up the Church of England and become Puritan. Two years after Cromwell's death, however, Charles II (son of Charles I) was put on the throne, and the monarchy was once more established. Then the Puritans began to lose their power.

The peace which came was only temporary. Parliament was not satisfied. It had gained new powers, but not enough. After ruling 25 years, Charles II died, and his brother became James II of Great Britain and Ireland. Trouble broke out again. Parliament had shown several times that it was growing strong — powerful enough even to remove a king from his throne. James II was driven into exile, and a new King and Queen, William and Mary, were invited to take his place. William was not an Englishman, and when asking him to take the throne Parliament greatly limited his powers. For example, he was not permitted to tax his subjects; that was to be the business of Parliament alone.

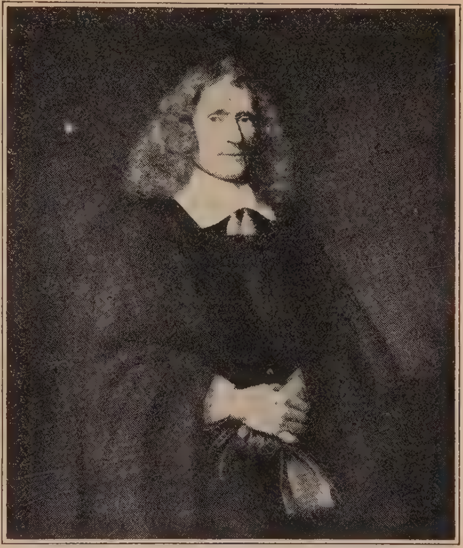

Fig. 32. Oliver Cromwell. (From a painting by Rembrandt)

These changes greatly upset many of the gentleman class. They had always been supporters of the king and of the Church of England, and of the class to which they belonged. Hence they were greatly dissatisfied with conditions in their native land.

So it developed that these people formed the third of three groups of Englishmen who were ready to emigrate to America. The first were the farmer-craftsmen and the second were the middle-class merchant group. As reports of the new land spread, therefore, many people of all classes prepared to uproot their homes and begin life again there.

Here is a glimpse of one of these homes which shows that even during Cromwell's time these people were beginning to be dissatisfied with their life in England. They too were turning their thoughts to the new lands.

"Zounds! What a man this Roundhead Cromwell is!" boomed the deep voice of Sir Robert Digby from the head of the long table. "He is not content with murdering our good King Charles, may God grant him peace, but now he must murder all our King's friends too!" He glanced round the table heaped high with spiced meats, breads, and delicious cakes.

It was a colorful group which was gathered there. Ladies, with elaborately dressed hair, were beautifully gowned in embroidered silks, satins, and fine laces. Fine, white hands played with the rich fare. To the right of every lady sat a gentleman no less well dressed than she. Long, glossy curled wigs, rich velvets, brocades, delicate lace cuffs, silk hose, all indicated the high social rank of the wearer.

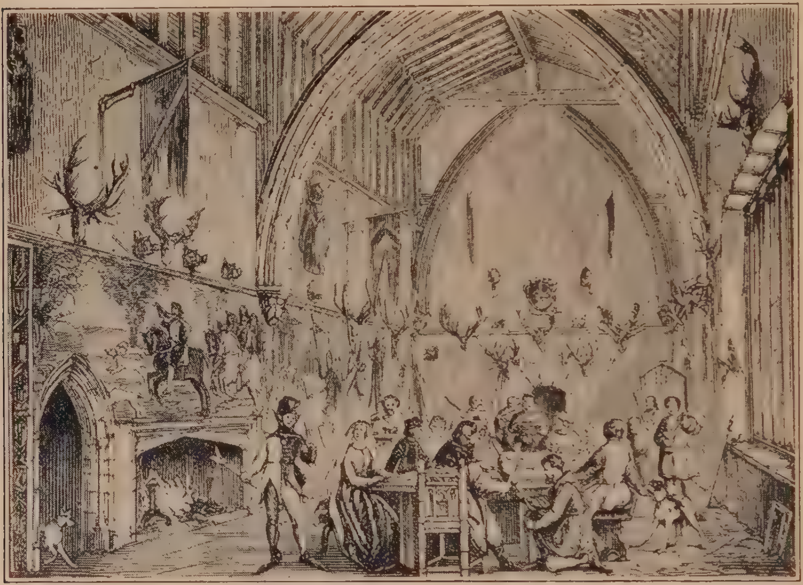

FIG. 33. A banquet hall in an English manor in the 1600's. It was not only the poor and the middle class people who thought of America as a future home. Many of those who lived in such luxury as the picture shows turned to America for safety as the merchant class gained in power. (From Coffin's *Old Times in the Colonies*, 1880)

"He asks *us* to sign his Covenant to put the Puritan religion in the place of our good King's Church of England. Of course I refused! Think you I would disgrace my family which for centuries has served the royal family?" exclaimed a guest indignantly.

"Nor I, though it cost me the land which the first Sir Robert Digby received from Henry IV," returned the host. "If it must be,— and pray God, never,— I will go to this new land America, of which we hear such strange and wondrous tales. Not Cromwell himself nor all his armies can force me to break my faith with our murdered King."

"How would you enjoy America, Elizabeth?" asked a young gallant of his pretty neighbor. "Imagine Indians eight feet tall, and dragons and five-headed cannibals!"

Elizabeth's eyes grew round at mention of such horrible curiosities. "May God help us — never!" she cried with a shudder.

"And why is my little daughter praying to the good Lord?" called Sir Robert, who had overheard the last remark from the head of the long table.

"'Tis of that fearful land, America, that Randal is speaking. I would not leave England."

"Nor I, little one. May God forbid it. Yet Randal is but teasing you about this new land. Barbarous and savage the Indians may be, yet the land is rich and fertile. Many good Englishmen will surely go there to remake their fortunes."

"Is it not odd that these Dissenters seem to mind not at all leaving their homes? I hear that more than 20,000 of them left for the colonies between 1630 and 1640," remarked Chaplain Clark.

"It is because many of them are newly rich, these wretched tradesmen, merchants, and artisans!" remarked young Darl Digby with heat. "Most of them are of no family. The land they own is not that which their ancestors have held for centuries. They do not love English soil as we do."

"Aye, 'tis true. And a radical people they are. Trying to force their gloomy ways of living down our throats, crying 'Down with the Church of England!' and then putting our kings off their thrones!"

Softly Sir Robert Digby added: "God grant that they do not enforce their new laws against us. I pray my home may be a home for Darl and his children, and their children's children. Yet if things go on in this way, we cannot remain here much longer. America will give us freedom."

There was a fourth group of people who were eager to leave England in the early 1600's. They were not the God-fearing, respectable Puritans, nor yet the aristocratic landlords, nor the sturdy yeomen. They were debtors and prisoners in the jails.

Many of them were hard-working, honest people who were the victims of unjust laws. Poor people, especially in London and the larger English cities, who were not able to pay their debts were thrown into prison until such time as they should be able to do so. This treatment was cruel and shortsighted, for people who were jailed were thus prevented from earning money to win their release. Innocent people had spent years, even a lifetime, in prison for the crime of being poor.

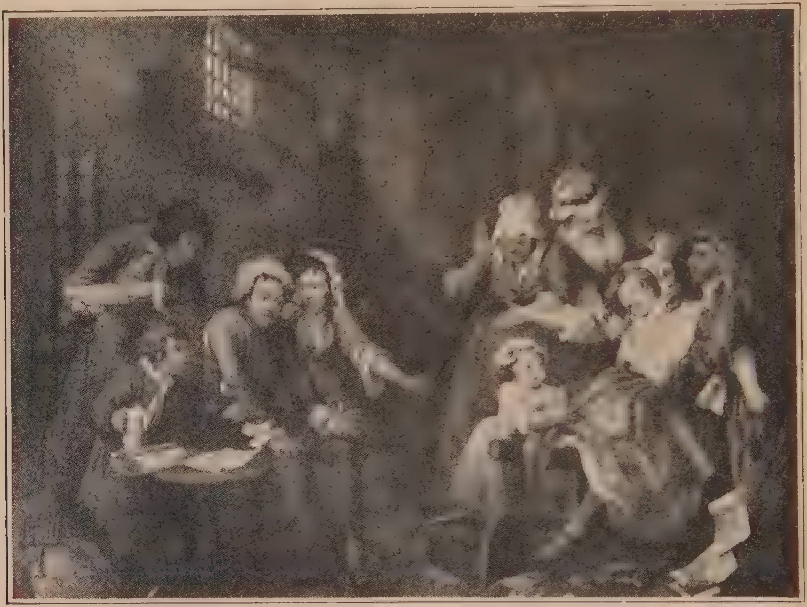

FIG. 34. Conditions in the English prisons of the 1600's were shocking. Many poor people, unable to pay their debts, were crowded into prison cells which were dirty and airless. There they stayed until they were able to pay what they owed or were released by death. (From a painting by William Hogarth)

The number of such debtors during these early days was very large. Prisons had become terribly overcrowded and conditions were shocking. Prisoners lacked air, light, even water with which to keep clean. They were not provided with food except by relatives or friends. They shared the same rooms with the worst criminals, who were awaiting trial. Some people died there, waiting to be set free.

During the reign of Queen Elizabeth, laws were passed to banish certain of these prisoners to foreign lands. Later King James I ordered over 100 people transported to the new America. After the colonies were established, a system gradually grew up by which men could make a contract with debtors in prison. They would agree to transport the debtors to America, and in return the debtors were to serve a term as laborers, or bond servants, to any colonist who would pay the contractor the amount of their passage. This term would last from seven to fourteen years. At the end of that time they were to be given their freedom, and might become citizens of the colony.

This system proved to be a convenient means of ridding England of petty offenders and debtors who crowded jails and workhouses. It was also a welcome plan to colonists who needed laborers. In the end it was beneficial to the unfortunate bond servant, for he thus had an opportunity to work out his freedom and to get a new start.

So, as we have seen, the century following the exploration of America by Europeans was a time of great unrest in England. People were eager for change. Thousands of Englishmen turned their thoughts to establishing colonies. Rich and poor alike wanted to build themselves new homes, to create a "New England" in America.

Two Important Questions

First: Were there Englishmen ready to brave the dangers of New World settlement?

The little glimpses we have had of the unrest and discontent in England in the 1600's will help us to understand why tens of thousands of Englishmen left their native land to struggle with home-building in the North American wilderness. Great courage and unfaltering determination were required: first, to undergo the two months' ocean crossing in a little sailboat, and then to face the dangers of frontier life on the unfriendly Atlantic shore.

Conditions in England had made many courageous and freedom-loving people willing to undertake the task of emigration. As you have already learned from *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World,* England lacked neither sturdy yeomen-farmers, skilled craftsmen, strong unskilled laborers, nor well-to-do educated leaders.

There were many experienced owners of small farms, skilled in agriculture, wanting to better their condition by farming the soil of the New World. There were thousands of farm laborers of the peasant class who had been cut loose from the soil and were working for starvation wages in the handicraft shops of the towns. Still others were dragging out unhappy lives on the manors. These laborers were eager to risk their lives in the adventure of emigration. England of all countries in Europe was prepared to lead in establishing permanent settlements in the New World.

Furthermore, the women of the farming and artisan class — indeed of the more well-to-do and cultured classes — were equally prepared and ready to move to America. The mass of English women were used to hard work. For centuries they had worked in the fields as farm laborers and spun yarn and woven cloth in their homes. They were even working in the crafts of English towns. These women were not afraid to venture into the unknown lands beside their fathers, their brothers, and their husbands.

So in 1600 it was becoming increasingly clear that things had been made ready for the establishing of a "New England" in North America. Religious persecution, tyrannical governments, and the difficulties of making a living had brought thousands of Englishmen to the decision to emigrate.

Second: Was the necessary capital available to establish settlements?

But more was needed to build a permanent "New England" in America than willing workers, no matter how courageous and experienced they were. Money was needed also, money in large amounts — money to buy and fit out ships, money to provision the ships and to feed the colony while the first crops were being produced from the soil, money to equip the colonists with farm tools, implements, and weapons. Large amounts of money, indeed, for it was estimated that to move a family to America and establish it safely in a new home would cost several thousand dollars.

Was the necessary money available? Were there persons in England who had enough capital to establish colonies in North America? Were these persons willing to risk it in such ventures?

Yes, in 1600, capital was at hand — large amounts of capital made in sheep-raising, in wool-manufacturing and many other crafts, and in England's growing foreign trade. To understand how this had come about we must recall from our earlier studies the conditions of living in western Europe. Let us recall first how trade had developed.

In the 1300's Europe had had its eyes opened to a new life which trade would bring about. Europeans began to realize that their lives had been cramped. So trade between East and West increased through the 1300's and 1400's. Expensive goods were brought in, in large quantities, and traders made great profits from their dangerous sea voyages. By 1600, trading companies had been formed by merchants and other people — the East India companies of the English, the Dutch, the Portuguese, fishing companies, and many others. People invested money in them. Some fortunes were lost, but often larger ones were made.

Recall how craftsmanship grew in England as the demands for trade increased. Many people left their little manors and went to live in towns. Gradually people began to have somewhat better homes, better food, and better clothing. The standard of living slowly rose. Money became more common. Even craftsmen and small farmers acquired small independent means. Steadily a larger number of people accumulated savings which they were willing to risk in new business ventures — even perhaps in the trading companies formed to send settlers to the new America.

Remember how England was building up a thriving shipping business and the world's most powerful navy. England, of all countries in Europe, to become Mistress of the Seas! England, which throughout the Middle Ages had been situated on the edge of the known world. Now, because of the new western explorations, she was becoming the center of world trade. Englishmen were enrolling in Portuguese vessels to learn the sea paths around Africa. English captains were fitting out ships of their own to visit China, India, and other rich trade centers of the Far East. Hardly a port in England but could boast of its shipyard and its dredged harbor. Every port was eager to become the center of the growing maritime trade.

During the preceding centuries life in Europe, especially in England, had undergone great changes. In every respect ways of living were being transformed — in the work people did, in the way they lived in towns and cities instead of on shut-in manors, in the great increase in craftsmanship and trade, in the expanding knowledge people had of the outside world, in their views about government and religion. All aspects of living were changing.

Of course the changes did not take place suddenly, in a few years or even in a century. They spread out over several hundred years. You already know the story as it was told in *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World*. Think back over it quickly.[1]

Our brief review of the changes coming about in England supplies us with the answer to our question. The growing handicraft and manufacturing of the towns and cities, the mounting world trade, and the piracy of England's sea dogs were pouring surplus capital into England's coffers. By 1600 there were indeed many people who had capital with which to establish colonies in North America. There were indeed many who were willing to risk their wealth in such ventures.

Thus the examples of this chapter have shown us that the time was ripe for setting up colonies in the New World. First, here were many Englishmen and other Europeans ready to brave the dangers of new world settlement. Second, the necessary capital was available with which to establish settlements.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

See the readings listed in Chapter II.

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[1] At this point re-read rapidly Chapter II of *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World.*

UNIT II

EUROPEANS SETTLE IN THE NEW WORLD

EUROPEANS SETTLE IN THE NEW WORLD

Thus, after a century of search for treasure and the route to Cathay, small groups of discontented Europeans turned to North America as a place to live. Brave bands of colonists from four countries — England, Holland, France, and Spain — sought to establish settlements.

As you read the thrilling story of the courageous battle with the wilderness, remember that another civilization was already established there. The Indians whom we saw in Chapter I claimed the continent. We shall ask ourselves constantly, therefore, What will be the relation between these original inhabitants of North America and the newcomers from Europe?

As you study the establishment of the first European colonies, note the fundamental differences between the British, the French, the Dutch, and the Spanish — the differences in numbers, in location, and in purpose.

You are now beginning the study of that remarkable westward movement which spanned the entire North American continent. It is the first half of that 300-year period that you are now considering. A century and a half was required to make thirteen permanent English colonies, to defeat the claims of other nations and races, and to set up a national government — the United States of America.

Throughout the story note the rôle of "geography." Ask yourself constantly: How much did climate, soil, vegetation, "lay of the land," and minerals determine where the people settled? How much did they determine how people got a living, what kind of social life they would have, and how they governed themselves?

One other point to bear in mind: To what extent did the English colonists become "Americans" during this period? How did the new life in the wilderness change the Englishman into the American?

CHAPTER IV

THE EARLIEST ENGLISH SETTLEMENTS ON THE EASTERN COAST OF NORTH AMERICA

THE FIRST ATTEMPTS BY GILBERT AND RALEIGH, 1578–1587

"We are as near to heaven by sea as by land!" So said Sir Humphrey Gilbert to his brave seamen the fatal day his ship went down with him in the Atlantic. That was the spirit of the first adventurer who tried to found an English colony in the New World.

For years, since he was in his twenties, Gilbert had dreamed of finding the Northwest Passage to Cathay. He talked to people of influence in England and tried to interest them in the venture. He pleaded with Queen Elizabeth for a royal charter. At length in 1578 the Queen yielded to his arguments and granted him a charter. This charter gave him permission to discover, occupy, and own such "Heathen lands not actually possessed of any Christian prince or people, as should seem good to him. . . ."

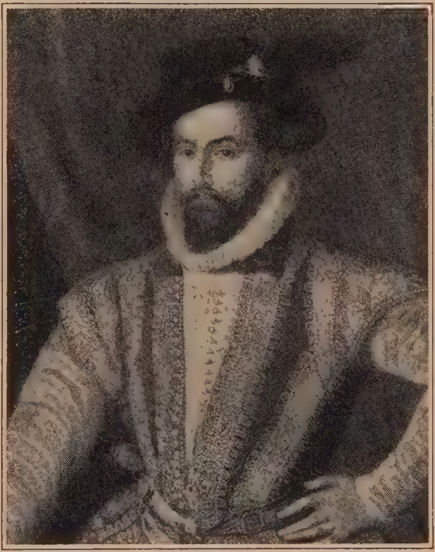

FIG. 35. Sir Walter Raleigh

Now Gilbert was an English country gentleman with a private fortune. So firmly did he believe in the future of colonies in America that he sold his property to fit out ships for the first venture. This was made in 1578–1579. It accomplished nothing. Not discouraged by his first failure, Gilbert tried again.

In 1583, by diligent planning, he succeeded in fitting out another fleet. When it arrived in the New World he selected a spot for settlement in cold Newfoundland. Then he turned his little frigate homeward. He never reached land.

No less courageous than Sir Humphrey Gilbert was his half brother, Sir Walter Raleigh. Raleigh was a tall, handsome, witty gentleman, the favorite of Queen Elizabeth for many years. He is said to have placed his cloak over a mud puddle for the Queen to step upon. The following ballad shows what was thought of him as a sailor:

CHANT OF THE PLYMOUTH DOCK HAND

When the sobbing sea is squally,
Then look out for Walter Raleigh!
He's the fellow whom Queen Bess is said to love.
He's a reckless, handsome sailor,
With a Vandyke like a tailor,
He can coo fond words of loving like a dove.
Faith! I like this gallant rover,
Who has ploughed the wild seas over,
Who has passed the grim and wild equator's ring;
And I cheer whene'er I view him,
For, my boy, off Spain I knew him
When he trimmed the Spanish cruisers like a king.

Raleigh was also interested in establishing colonies in America. Unshaken by the tragic fate of Sir Humphrey Gilbert, he applied to Queen Elizabeth for a charter similar to his brother's. It was granted. Between 1585 and 1587 he made three attempts to plant colonies on the coast of what is now North Carolina. Two of these expeditions were sent out at Raleigh's own expense. All of them failed. The colonists were never heard from.

It is little wonder that the gallant brothers failed in those first attempts. Imagine the difficulties which newcomers had to endure. To fit up ships with men and supplies, great fortunes were needed. Sailors had to be paid high wages, for they were not eager to brave the Atlantic storms. Sailing vessels were small and slow, so that weeks and even months were required for the crossing.

Once the ships had safely reached land, the troubles of the colonists had only begun. They were at the mercy of the Indians, who might or might not prove friendly. In order to build a shelter against the weather and to cultivate the land, they had to bring all their tools, implements, cloth, and other household goods with them. Food had to be provided until a crop could be grown.

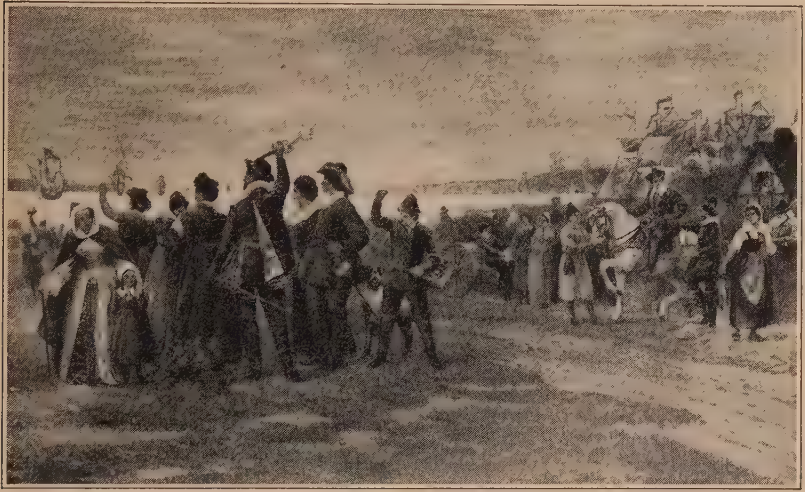

FIG. 36. Waving good-by to Raleigh's colonists on their way to attempt the first English settlement on the new continent. (From a painting by C. Y. Turner in the Hotel Raleigh, Washington)

To do all these things great sums of money were needed. Each of Raleigh's expeditions consisted of 100 or more persons. No wonder, then, that the gallant Sir Walter lost a great fortune (reported to be equal to $1,000,000 in our present money) on his ill-fated attempts at settlement. His work was not entirely in vain, however. In spite of the first misfortunes, many Englishmen began to believe that America might become a home for them.

IN 1606 THE LONDON COMPANY AND THE PLYMOUTH COMPANY WERE FORMED TO SUPPLY MONEY FOR COLONIES

It was becoming clear enough to Englishmen that private fortunes were not large enough to settle America. After the time of Gilbert and Raleigh ambitious traders sought to form companies to raise money for the task. In 1606, six years after the founding of the successful English East India Company, two groups of merchants formed stock companies known as the London Company and the Plymouth Company, and each obtained charters and large grants of land in America from King James I. The grants included a strip of land 100 miles wide extending from about Maine to North Carolina. (See figure 37.)

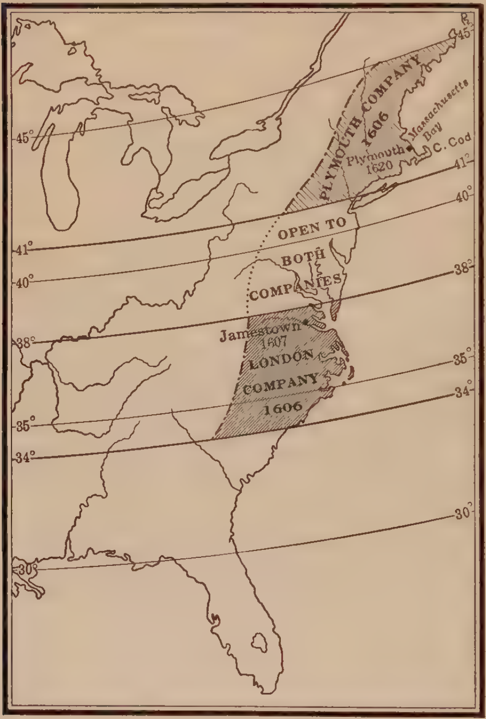

FIG. 37. In 1606 two English companies secured grants of land on the North American coast. The shaded areas show the land given to each company. Colonists from both companies were permitted to settle in the territory which lay between the two grants. Jamestown (1607) and Plymouth (1620) were the first settlements made as a result of these grants

The London and the Plymouth companies operated much as do our large corporations of today. Shares of stock were sold to merchants and landed gentlemen who had capital to invest. There were several motives in the minds of those who started the London Company. Some bought stock merely because they believed colonies would pay dividends. Others bought it because they were patriotic and desired to establish England's empire round the world. Still others wanted to convert the natives of North America to Christianity.

Like Sir Walter Raleigh's expeditions, the London Company was the result of the belief that the American continents contained much gold and other valuable products. In a play which was presented in London in 1605, one of the characters described the land in such phrases as these:

> I tell thee gold is more plentiful there than copper is with us. . . . Why, man, all their dripping pans are pure gold; and all the chains with which they chain up their streets are massy gold; all the prisoners they take are fettered in gold; and for rubies and diamonds they go forth on holidays and gather them by the seashore to hang on their children's coats and stick in their children's caps.

Small wonder, then, that with the air full of such exciting tales most of the first colonists were influenced by the longing for gold and treasure.

The London Company gathered a group of men and in December, 1606, they sailed in three ships — the *Susan Constant*, the *God Speed*, and the *Discovery*. They were bound for "Virginia," the land which had been claimed by Raleigh.

I. THE JAMESTOWN COLONY, 1607

Among this group there was only a handful of men who knew how to work. There were a few tradesmen, but the majority were gentlemen and soldiers of fortune. Do you think that such adventurers would be prepared to build homes for themselves and to plant farms in the wilderness?

In April, 1607, the little fleet entered what is now called Chesapeake Bay, anchored, and sent a number of men ashore to find a place for settlement.

After several days the company explored a great river, which they named the James, after their King, James I. Thirty miles from the mouth of the river they came to a peninsula and to a small island in the river. There they established the first English settlement in North America which was to survive. They named it also after their King — Jamestown.

In this Jamestown group of gentlemen adventurers was a man whose name is well known to us. This was the famous Captain John Smith. It was he who later told the romantic tale of his rescue by a beautiful Indian girl named Pocahontas. Charming as it is, the tale is probably not true, nor were many of the tales which the lion-hearted Smith told completely accurate.

Undoubtedly, however, Smith was a young man with an adventurous past which any boy with a love for romance might envy. For many years he had been a soldier of fortune. He had fought in France and in Holland. He had been captured by the Turks and sold into slavery. He had killed his Turkish captor and escaped, and he had wandered through Italy, Spain, France, and Germany, finding excitement at almost every mile — at least according to his own stories! He had been aboard a French ship which engaged in a fight with two Spanish men-o'-war. Surely such adventures as these were sufficient for any one man, but Smith loved an adventurous life.

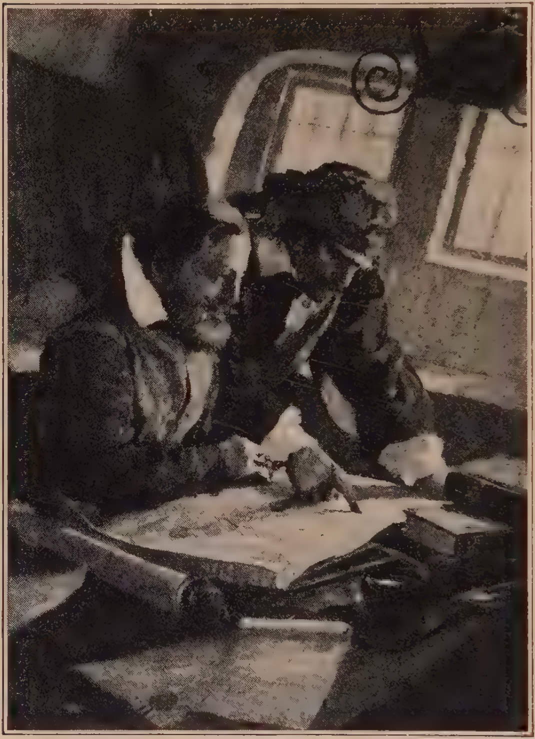

FIG. 38. Captain John Smith and one of his sailors working over a map of the coast of North America. (From a painting by Stanley M. Arthurs)

Leaving most of the settlers to make rough dwellings, Captain Smith and others went exploring. They thought they might possibly find gold. The London Company had demanded money as a return on their investments; so these men must search for treasure. They thought, too, that they might find a passage through to the Great South Sea which Balboa had discovered nearly a century before their coming. On their way inland they met Indians, who seemed friendly. In spite of the apparent friendliness of the natives, however, Smith and his companions grew suspicious of their good feeling. They distrusted the guides with whom they were traveling, and fearing for their weak little colony they hastened back to Jamestown. They found that they had been right in their suspicions, for the Indians had attacked the settlement and some of the men had been hurt.

As far as we know this was the first hostile encounter of the Englishmen with the Indians. It marked the beginning of a long struggle between red men and white men. For 250 years after that time the Indians tried to keep a grip on the land over which their ancestors had roamed for unknown ages. The European colonizers wanted the land on which to make a better living. So for two and a half centuries the struggle that began at Jamestown in 1607 was continued on every frontier.

THE PLIGHT OF THE JAMESTOWN SETTLERS

The first summer spent in Jamestown was one of terrible suffering to the inexperienced settlers. The little island of Jamestown was low and marshy. The water became stagnant and sickening. Much of the food brought overseas spoiled, and there was none to replace it. Men went hungry. Captain Smith remarked, "The Spaniards never more eagerly desired gold than I victual." Sickness broke out, and there were a shocking number of deaths.

But there were other causes of trouble in the tiny colony. Most of the men who had come to Jamestown were unaccustomed to work. They had come to America to grow rich with the abundant gold, and they did not want to slave to clear the forests or to plant wheat and corn.

Captain John Smith alone seemed to see the grim necessity for work. He had no patience with fine gentlemen who did not care to soil their white hands, for he knew that unless everyone worked there would be no food during the winter months. He became disgusted with their constant talk of gold, gold, gold. He wrote:

> As at this time were most of our chiefest men either sick or discontented, the rest being in such despair, as they would rather starve and rot with idleness, than be persuaded to do anything for their own lief without constrainte.[1]

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[1] L. G. Tyler (Editor), "A True Relation," in *Narratives of Early Virginia, 1606–1625* (Original Narratives of Early American History Series), p. 37. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1907.

Trouble seemed to haunt the Jamestown colony. The London Company did not coöperate well with the settlers. Its members did not know of the sufferings of the forlorn little group overseas. Nor did they care. They had sent settlers to look for gold, as well as to make a colony, and they wanted an immediate return on their investment. They also wanted explorers to find the passage to the Indies, for they believed, as everyone did, that North America was narrow enough to be crossed in a few days.

The wretched colonists had found neither gold nor the route to the East; so the company was displeased with them. It was not too eager to send food and supplies. It did, however, send more settlers.

The new shiploads of immigrants, like the first, were gentlemen and soldiers of fortune with their servants. Captain John Smith was annoyed. He wrote back indignantly, asking for sturdy yeomen who were not afraid to dig in the earth. He enforced a rule that men who would not work should not eat, but in spite of all his efforts there was not food enough to go round. The colony was rapidly going to ruin, and many newcomers died as the first ones had.

ONE CAUSE OF TROUBLE: THE COMPANY WAS TRYING TO GOVERN THE COLONY BY A COMMUNITY PLAN

The colonists were not entirely to blame, however, for not working hard on the land. The company in England *owned* all the land in Virginia. Most of the labor was to be done by servants sent out at company expense. Tools and supplies were to be furnished to the settlers, and when the crops were raised they were to go into a common storehouse, from which the colonists were to receive their portion of food and supplies. This plan did not encourage men to work, for most of the profits were to belong to the stockholders in England.

In fact, it proved to be quite profitless. The men did not feel that they were getting anything for their labor. A man who worked not at all was entitled to the same amount of community supplies as the hard-working man. Most of the men adopted the plan, then, of "letting someone else do it."

Several men were sent over from England as governors in a short space of time. Most of these governors were not able to fit themselves into the New World conditions. Some of them tried to profit at the expense of the colony, and all of them had trouble trying to force the colonists to keep order and to work. The gold-seekers became restless and impatient under the terrible strain of Virginia life. The governors used very harsh methods trying to subdue them.

The troubles of the colonists were long in ending. Famine fell upon the struggling little colony in 1609 and lasted for nearly a year. During that time about 400 persons died, leaving but 60 survivors.

AT LAST, HOWEVER, THE SETTLERS FOUND SOME PROSPERITY IN RAISING TOBACCO

The search for gold in Virginia yielded nothing. The route to the East was a dream. Many weary, heart-sick Englishmen turned back to their old homes. It seemed that the colony would surely fail.

Then, after a few years of hard work at farming, came better times. By 1617 the colony had become somewhat prosperous as treasure was found to lie not in gold but in a broad green leaf. Tobacco! Even the market place and borders of the streets of Jamestown were planted with it. Tobacco brought a high price in the London market. How it flourished on Virginia soil! One man wrote:

> All our riches for the present do consist in tobacco, wherein one man by his own labour hath in one year raised for himself to the value of £200 sterling [about $1000]; and another by the means of six servants hath cleared at one crop a thousand pound English [$5000]. These be true, yet indeed rare examples, yet possible to be done by others.

At last bad fortune had ceased to frown upon Jamestown. Homes were built, food became better and more plentiful, and women came from England to become the wives of planters. The health of the people improved. Tobacco plantations spread all along the coast on the large company grants. Jamestown became a small but prosperous community.

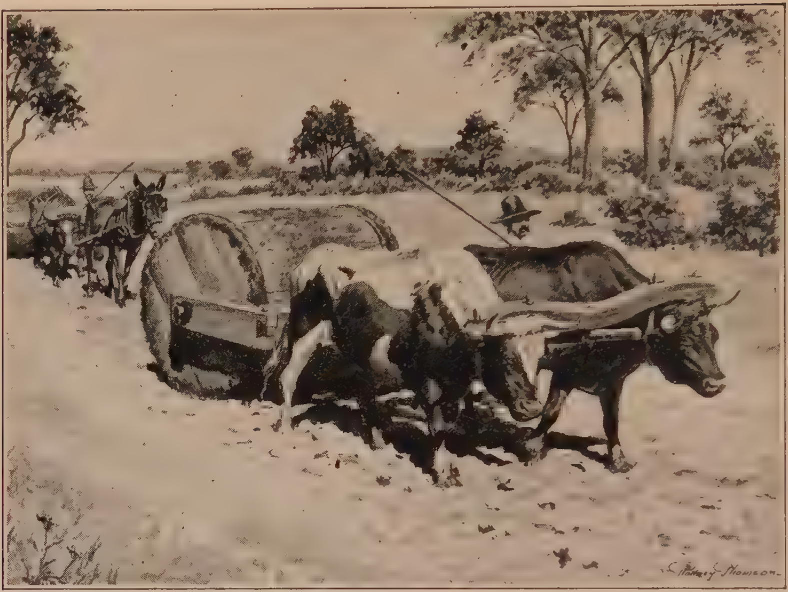

FIG. 39. Jamestown owed its prosperity to tobacco. In the picture, men are driving animals harnessed to rollers. These rollers were a sort of barrel. They were filled with tobacco and drawn to the port. From there they were shipped to Europe

In 1617 one of the settlers, John Pory, wrote to a correspondent in England remarking upon the growing comfort of the settlers:

> Now that your lordship may know, that we are not the veriest beggars in the world, our cowkeeper here of James City on Sundays goes dressed all in fresh flaming silk; and a wife of one that in England had professed the black art, not of a scholar, but of a collier of Croydon, wears her rough beaver hat with a fair pearl hat band, and a silken suit thereto correspondent.[1]

INDENTURED SERVANTS WERE BROUGHT TO VIRGINIA TO WORK ON THE PLANTATIONS

The lands were held by gentlemen of leisure not fond of working with their hands. But tobacco is a crop which requires much attention, and many hands were needed to sow, cultivate, and harvest the growing plantations. So servants were brought from England to till the great tobacco fields.

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[1] Adapted from a letter of John Pory, in *Narratives of Early Virginia, 1606–1625* (edited by L. G. Tyler for the Original Narratives of Early American History Series), pp. 284–285. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1907.

Within a few years demands began to reach England for laborers. To fill the demands two kinds of laborers were sent: (1) white "indentured servants," (2) Negro slaves. As you have seen in the last chapter, the business of contracting for the passage of debtors as indentured servants then became common in England. Many poor people were transported under contract to work for a term of years. Young boys and girls were even kidnaped in the streets of London and along the wharves and sold, for the cost of their passage, to plantation owners. In exchange they were to work in the fields until they had paid back to their owner in labor what he had paid the contractor.

This was the true beginning of slavery in Virginia, for these white people were really slaves during their long terms of service — seven to fourteen years. A famous historian said of them:

> Their lives were in theory protected by law, but when an indentured servant came to his death from prolonged ill usage or from excessive punishment, or even sudden violence, it was not always easy to get a verdict against the master. In those days of frequent flogging, the lash was inflicted upon the indentured servant with scarcely less compunction than upon the purchased slave.[1]

The First Negro Slaves were brought from Africa, 1619

Although many indentured servants were brought to the New World, still more labor was needed by the owners of the large estates. At length a new source of man power was found.

In 1619 a Dutch trading ship, carrying Negroes from Africa, entered the port of Virginia. Twenty slaves were sold to the planters.

This was the beginning of *Negro slavery*, which later became the chief source of labor in the Southern colonies. We shall hear much of the important events which grew out of the visit of the Dutch ship in 1619. For 50 years Negro slaves did not replace indentured servants. Then, however, Virginia depended much more upon black men than upon white servants.

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[1] John Fiske, *Old Virginia and her Neighbors*, Vol. I, p. 177. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1897.

After the first terrible years conditions in the settlement slowly improved. New settlements were established at Henrico, Bermuda Hundred, Williamsburg, and a few other places. "Virginia" grew into a substantial colony consisting of a few vast estates and many small farms of from 50 to 100 acres each. The large estates — 1000 acres or more in extent — were all owned by prosperous planters, who depended upon slave labor for the growing of tobacco. In addition there were many miserably poor white people who were trying to get along on small holdings of land.

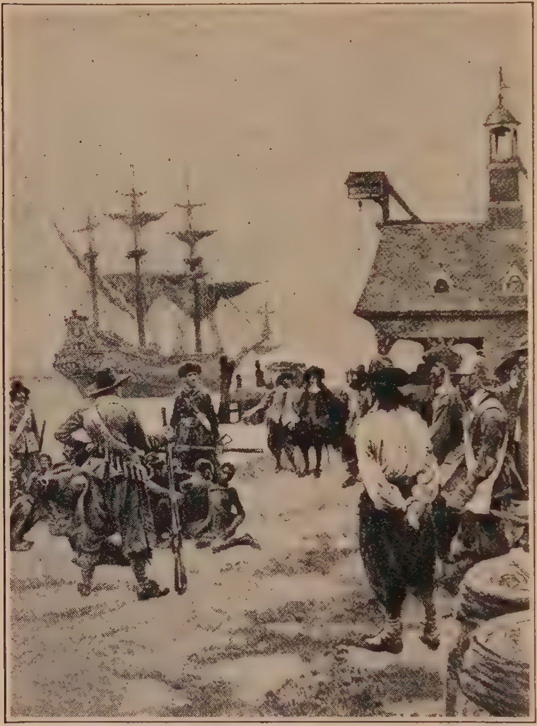

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FIG. 40. Landing the first slaves at Jamestown. (From a painting by Howard Pyle, for Woodrow Wilson's *A History of the American People*, 1901, 1917)

By 1660 life was going fairly smoothly for many of the people, and conditions were becoming somewhat more nearly like those in England in the old days. Even the small farmers' log cabins were being replaced by better frame houses, while Virginia gentlemen lived in comparative ease in their well-built, colonial homes, and were growing wealthy from the sale of their fine tobacco.

II. PURITAN DISSENTERS SETTLED "NEW ENGLAND," 1620–1640

During the years that the stockholders of the London Company were trying to found the Jamestown colony, other Englishmen were going to America. As we have seen in Chapter III, the

Puritan Dissenters were persecuted by the Established Church of England, because they wanted to break away from it. One of the leaders of the Dissenters said of them:

> They were hunted and persecuted on every side. For some were taken and clapt up in prison; others had their houses beset and watched night and day . . . and the most were fain to flee and leave their houses and habitations and the scene of their livelihood.

Most of the men who wanted to leave their homes were farmers, laborers, and handicraftsmen.

A group of Dissenters living at Scrooby, England, finally packed up all their belongings and moved to Holland. They chose Holland as their new home because there, as William Bradford, their leader, said, "they heard was freedome of religion for all men." It was reported to them that there were no religious disturbances in Holland. People could worship as they wished.

In Holland the little band settled first in Amsterdam and then in Leyden. But even there they had difficulties. One was over the kinds of work they could do. Since these English people were foreigners, the Dutch guilds would not permit them to work at the crafts which they had learned at home. Only the heaviest kind of work fell to them.

Furthermore, their children were forgetting their native English speech and customs and were obliged to work long hours at hard labor. They were too young for such hardship and their bodies were not able to stand it.

These people were no happier in their Holland homes than they had been in England. During the very years, therefore, that the Virginia colony was causing so much talk in England, the Puritan Dissenters thought more and more about joining their fellow countrymen in Virginia. To that end they applied to the London Company for permission to settle there.

They were poor people, however, who had not the money to pay for their own passage and set up new households. They would not go as indentured servants. They wanted to go as a group and live and work together.

Finally they obtained the help of the Virginia Company with the agreement that they would work together for seven years to pay for their passage money. All the products of their work were to go into a common store, and all profits were to go to the merchants who granted them some of the land. At the end of that time they would be free to build up their own fortunes. The terms were hard, but they were glad to accept anything in order to get to the New World. They felt that there they

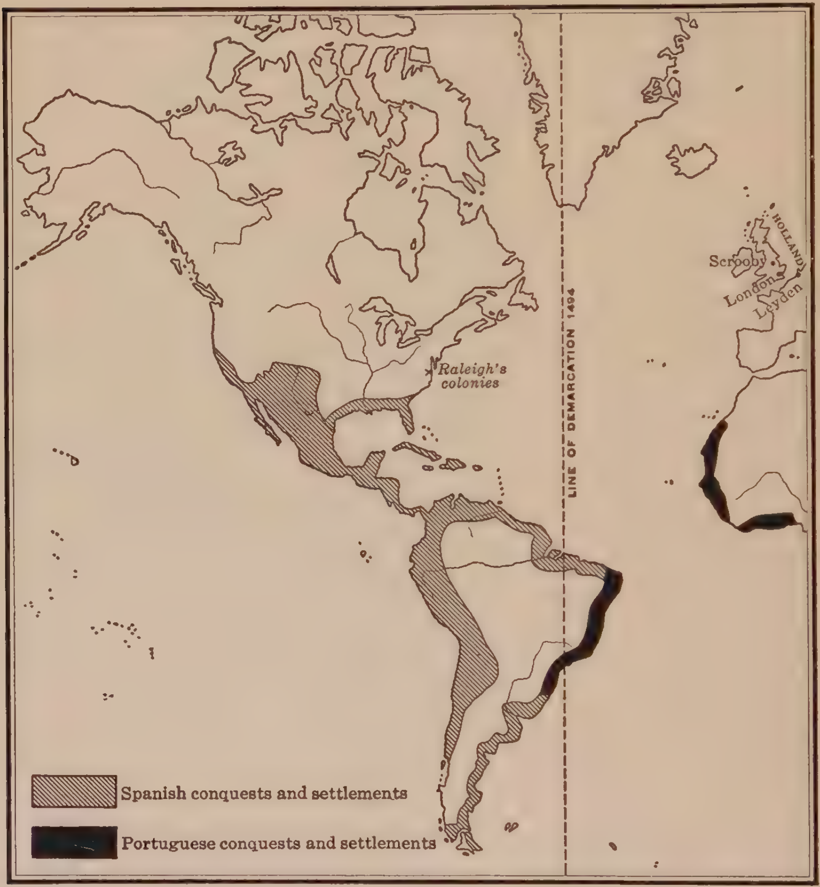
HOLLAND
Scrooby
London
Leyden
Raleigh's colonies
LINE OF DEMARCATION 1494
Spanish conquests and settlements
Portuguese conquests and settlements

FIG. 41. The map shows you several things. *First*, it shows the extent of the land in the Western Hemisphere which Spain and Portugal controlled. *Second*, it shows a line which represents the division of the New World by the Pope. In 1494 the Pope decreed that all the land which lay west of this longitude should belong to Spain; all that lay east should belong to Portugal. *Third*, it shows where some of the English Dissenters lived who were soon to form a new English colony

would be able to get a good living and could rear their children in a more moral fashion than was possible among the easy-going Dutch Protestants.

Let us pause now for a moment and imagine we are in Leyden, Holland, overhearing the conversation of William Bradford, the Dissenters' leader, and his friend Edward Winslow.

It is early autumn in the year 1620. The two sober, earnest young men are on their way home from a meeting of their fellow countrymen. The last golden rays of sunlight brighten the spires of the great cathedral and the old Dutch university. One by one candle lights flicker from the windows of the little cottages of the Englishmen. Up and down the main street of the settlement stand little knots of Dissenters in earnest discussion. Old and young are equally interested and serious. They are discussing important matters, for the time of departure for America is at hand. The *Speedwell*, in which they are to sail that night, lies at anchor in the harbor of Delftshaven. Everyone is greatly excited.

"But if you had read Raleigh, you would feel as I do," asserts William Bradford warmly. "He wrote about what he actually saw in this Virginia. He said it was a very large, rich, and beautiful country. Life couldn't be so hard there, for the season is always spring. Everything grows plentifully, without great care, and people need less in such a land."

"But there is gold there, and where there is gold, there will soon be Papists (Catholics) and sinners," his friend Edward Winslow retorts. "Will not the Spaniards crowd us out? How long, think you, would they let us live in peace?"

"You were not with us at Scrooby," the older Bradford continues gravely. "I cannot feel we shall suffer more in America than we did there. And life has not been easy for many of us, here in Leyden. In that northern part of Virginia, if we settle by ourselves, we shall be free from the torments our English brothers brought upon us in Scrooby. Besides, here the Dutch are every day preparing for war with Spain. Think you the savages of America can be more cruel than the Catholic Spaniards, who hate us Protestants? We should have to fight them, you know."

Winslow has no answer to this. He has great respect for his friend's experience, for William Bradford had been with this small group of Dissenters from the time when trouble began in Scrooby. He had taken part in the rebellion against the Church of England and had been one of the first members of the separate church which had been set up afterwards.

"Life will indeed be hard in America," continues Bradford, "but all great and honorable actions are accompanied with great difficulties. There at least we shall be free to worship God as we must. We shall not be forced into war with Spain, and our children will grow up strong in our own faith."

This was the spirit of determination which characterized those who were led by Bradford, Brewster, and Winslow. Bradford at that time wrote that "they knew they were *Pilgrims*." They tried to forget that they were leaving their homes and friends forever. They lifted up their eyes to the heavens, "their dearest country," that they might "quiet their spirits."[1]

That night they sailed for America.

The *Speedwell*, however, was a small boat and not very seaworthy. It had gone but a short part of the journey when it was joined by the *Mayflower* with a shipload of people from England. After a short while the *Speedwell* was pronounced unfit for the voyage, and both ships put back to port. Some of the Pilgrims became discouraged by this unfavorable start, and decided to remain in England. The *Mayflower* was loaded with the rest, about 100 people, and continued on its famous journey.

Imagine for yourself the discomforts which these 100 people suffered, crossing the Atlantic for ten weeks in a little sailboat. The Atlantic was not kind to the little boat. Heavy storms shook every timber and drove the *Mayflower* out of its course far to the north of the Virginia settlement.

In November land was sighted at last. Great was the thankfulness of the wanderers. For four or five weeks after the first glimpse of land, however, a small open boat skirted the Atlantic shores as the people strained their eyes for a glimpse of the

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[1] The foregoing quotations from William Bradford have been adapted from his *History of Plimouth Plantation.*

Virginia settlement. The weather was becoming dreadfully cold, and the Pilgrims dared search for Virginia no longer. Shelter must be found immediately, for winter was upon them.

The Pilgrims built their First Town at Plymouth, Massachusetts

On a bitter morning in December, 1620, the little boat again put out from the *Mayflower* with several of the Pilgrims. They had found a small sheltered spot on the Massachusetts coast near Cape Cod. There, under the leadership of Captain Miles Standish, they landed. It is believed that they stepped ashore at a spot made famous by the Plymouth Rock. Standish and a few companions went into the deep woods to explore the countryside. On board the *Mayflower* people were very eager to land, for they were growing impatient and discouraged. The rough, cold trip had tried the patience of everyone, and many people had fallen ill.

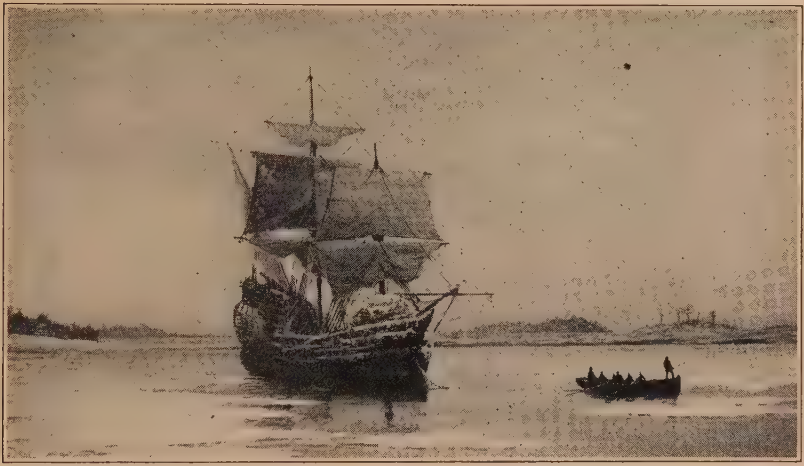

FIG. 42. The *Mayflower* anchors in Plymouth Harbor. It must have taken great courage to leave even the poor shelter of the ship for the dangers of the unknown land. (From a painting by W. F. Halsall. Photograph from Keystone View Company)

> I cannot but . . . stand half amazed at these poor people's present condition [William Bradford wrote about the valiant group]. Having thus passed the vast ocean, . . . they had now no friends to welcome

> them, nor inns to entertain or refresh their weatherbeaten bodies, no houses or much less towns to repair to or seek for succor. . . . Furthermore it was winter, and they that know the winters of that country, know them to be sharp and violent, and subject to cruel and fierce storms. . . . Besides, what could they see but a hideous and desolate wilderness full of wild beasts and wild men? . . . For summer being done, all things stand upon them with a weatherbeaten face, and the whole country, full of woods and thickets, represented wild and savage hue.[1]

Miles Standish returned from his explorations with a favorable report of that region, and on December 26, 1620, the entire company went ashore. The new year saw them hard at work on a house large enough to shelter everyone. At length it was finished, and gradually others were built. Before many months a little settlement had grown up.

> Winter weather took a heavy toll among the Pilgrims that first winter. . . . In two or three months' time half of the company died, especially in January and February, being the depth of winter, and wanting houses and other comforts, being infected with the scurvy and other diseases, which this long voyage . . . had brought upon them . . . so . . . that of 100 and odd persons, scarce 50 remained.[2]

Added to the hardships of cold and hunger was that of trouble with the Indians. This was no small part of the terrors of the New World. Fortunately, spring brought happier times: peace was made with the red men, and the Puritans began trading, fishing, and planting. Their Indian neighbors showed them how to grow corn, guided them through the woods and showed them game, and helped them fish the streams.

By the end of the first year the colony was actually able to send back to England a shipload of beaver skins, which the Indians had helped them to prepare. Thus they began to pay back the company which had helped them. At the end of three years, however, they grew tired of the community system and bought outright the claims of the company. Thereafter they owned their own land and governed themselves.

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[1] Adapted from William Bradford's *History of Plimouth Plantation.*
[2] Ibid.

Not many years passed before considerable prosperity came to the little Pilgrim colony. Fur-trading with the Indians was profitable. Fishing was abundant along Cape Cod. Shiploads of dry cod were sent to England. Profitable voyages were undertaken by some of the merchants. Good houses were built in substantial little towns. In spite of its increasing prosperity, however, the Pilgrim colony did not become a rich settlement.

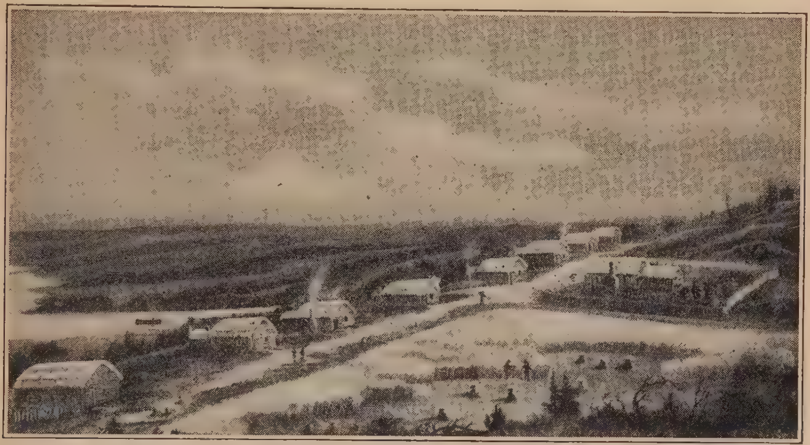

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FIG. 43. The little settlement of Plymouth two years after the landing of the Pilgrims

III. OTHER PURITANS FOUNDED THE MASSACHUSETTS BAY COLONY, 1628–1630

The Pilgrim settlement was not yet ten years old when new English settlements appeared near by. Some of these were established by well-to-do Puritans.

In the year 1628 many people of England were reading such lines as these with eager interest:

For richest gems and gainful things most merchants wisely venture;
Deride not then New England, men, this corporation enter;
Such trades' advance did never chance, in all thy trading yet;
Though some deride thy loss, abide here gain beyond men's wit.[1]

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[1] Adapted from Edward Johnson's *Wonder-Working Providence of Zion's Saviour in New England, 1628–1651* (edited by J. Franklin Jameson for the Original Narratives of Early American History Series), p. 38. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1910.

As a result of such reports, the thoughts of many merchants, landed gentry, yeomen, and even scholars began to center upon America. Well-to-do merchants in London saw that the Virginia venture had proved successful. The Pilgrim colony at Plymouth was prospering. They were shipping furs and fine masts for ships cut from the forests. Stories of profitable trade with the Indians had drifted back, and fishermen visiting the Newfoundland fishing banks found the waters alive with cod. Ventures to the shore sometimes yielded a cargo of beaver furs, which the Indians, it was said, sold for mere trifles — strings of beads and bright red cotton. The sale of these skins in European shops brought enormous profits.

In 1628 a group of wealthy Englishmen, inspired by the reports of America, founded a trading company called the Massachusetts Bay Company. The roll call of stockholders of the company included such famous names as John Endicott and John Winthrop. The company was to pay the expense of fitting out ships and supplying men to help build settlements. These men in turn were to fish, trade with the Indians, and explore the woods in search of herbs for medicine and dyes. The products of their work were to go back to England.

In the summer of 1628, 60 settlers set out from England under the leadership of a prominent Puritan gentleman named John Endicott. They settled first at what is now Gloucester on Cape Ann and shortly afterwards started the town which is now called Salem (Peace). A writer of the time described the emigrants who came as a "mixed multitude," a "store of servants." Among them were many indentured servants, mechanics, fishermen, traders — but only a few wealthy gentlemen adventurers.

In May of 1629 another expedition was sent by the Massachusetts Bay Company. This time it was more distinctly a Puritan group — 200 settlers under the leadership of a Puritan clergyman, Francis Higginson.

Then "The Great Migration" of 1630–1640: 14,000 Englishmen settled in Massachusetts

In the year 1630 a remarkable expedition — a fleet of 17 ships with 1000 people — sailed into Massachusetts Bay and settled all at once in seven different towns. This great company, astonishing for those days of slow-sailing vessels, stood out in sharp contrast with the poverty-stricken little groups that had landed at Jamestown and at Plymouth some years before. They were a very different kind of people, too, both from the Virginians and from the laborers who were working for the merchant company at Salem. Their leaders were not mere servants and unskilled laborers; they were educated gentlemen, graduates of Cambridge and Oxford universities, and some of them were large owners of property. These leaders — for example, John Winthrop, John Cotton, Thomas Hooker, Thomas Dudley — were well known and respected in England. Some had even been members of Parliament.

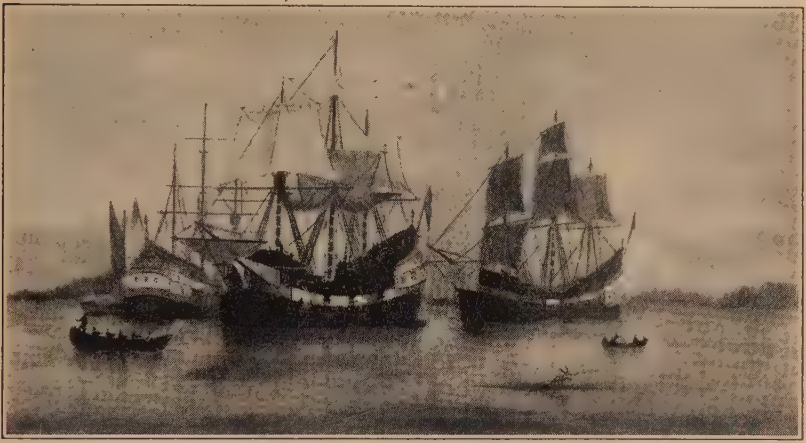

FIG. 44. The arrival of Winthrop's ships in Boston Harbor and the beginning of "The Great Migration." (From a painting by W. F. Halsall. Courtesy of the Misses Ellis, North Scituate)

This Puritan migration of 1630–1640 was made up of the more conservative and well-to-do Puritans, to whom we referred in the preceding chapter. Not being so radical as those who finally settled at Plymouth, these Puritan men of property had at first not been severely persecuted in England. In 1628, however, the King, his court, and the bishops of the Established Church became very autocratic, threw many of the Puritan leaders into prison, and seized their property. Parliament was dismissed and the King and his court established a tyrannical rule. So John Winthrop and other well-to-do stockholders of the Massachusetts Bay Company embarked for North America with their families and much of their movable property.

In the 1630's ship after ship brought Puritans to New England. They settled near the present location of Boston. Some established a settlement at Charles Town (Charlestown), others at Cambridge and Dorchester, and others at Boston. Boston became the most important because it was "the fittest place for public meetings of any place in the Bay." A writer of that time says of the industry which developed there:

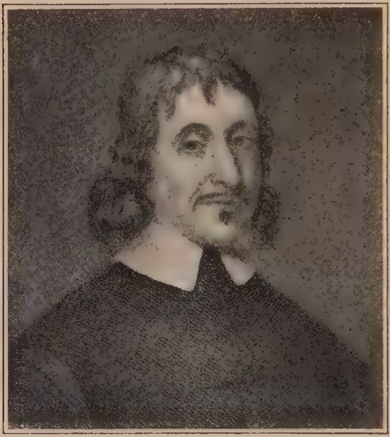

FIG. 45. John Winthrop

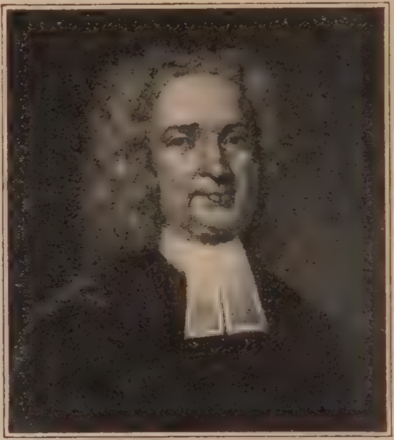

FIG. 46. John Cotton

> Good store of shipping is built here each year and some very fair ones; both tar and masts the country affords from its own soil; also store of victuals both for their own and for foreigners' ships who resort hither for that end: this town is the very mart of the land; French, Portuguese, and Dutch come hither to trade.[1]

The Puritan settlers spread out over the whole territory around Massachusetts Bay, each group forming a "plantation" or a town, and each town centering about a little church. By spreading out they hoped to reach a larger number of Indians desiring trade and to have enough land to grow their own food. New groups arrived frequently to enlarge the settlements. Edward Johnson gives this picture of life in the little towns a few years after the first migration:

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[1] Adapted from Edward Johnson's *Wonder-Working Providence of Zion's Saviour in New England, 1628–1651* (edited by J. Franklin Jameson for the Original Narratives of Early American History Series), pp. 67–69, 70, 71. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1910.

> The year 1633, the number of freemen added was 46. The winter's frost being extracted from the earth, they fall to tearing up the roots and bushes with their hoes; even such men as scarce ever set hand to labour before . . . cutting down the woods, they inclose corn fields. . . . The chiefest corn they planted before they had plows was Indian grain, whose increase is very much beyond all other, to the great refreshing of the poor servants of Christ, in their low beginnings. All kinds of garden fruit grew very well, and let no man make a jest at pumpkins, for with this fruit the Lord was pleased to feed his people to their good content, till corn and cattle were increased. . . . This year a small glean of rye was brought to the court as the first fruits of English grain, at which this poor people greatly rejoiced to see that the land would bear it.[1]

After 1640 the Puritans in England had gained so much power in Parliament and such religious freedom that fewer colonists left home to settle in New England. During 150 years only occasional groups who were influenced by friends or who were interested in trade came to Massachusetts.

This first great migration of 14,000 people (1630–1640) was extremely important in the history of our country, for these first emigrants were the ancestors of many of us today. Some historians estimate that one sixth of all the American people today have descended from these 14,000 men and women. Whether or not that be true, we doubtless owe much of our American civilization to them.

During the first years life was not easy on New England shores and nearly all the settlers of Massachusetts endured hardship. The climate was cold five months out of twelve, and little would grow from the ground between October and April. Then, as now, the top soil of Massachusetts was rocky and thin, and only meager crops would yield to the hardest labor.

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[1] Adapted from Edward Johnson's *Wonder-Working Providence of Zion's Saviour in New England, 1628–1651* (edited by J. Franklin Jameson for the Original Narratives of Early American History Series), pp. 85, 91. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1910.

Fortunately, however, it was not hard to provide shelter for the newcomers, for the forests were dense and had never been cut. From the lumber at hand houses, implements, and sailing vessels were built.

Into the rough life of the newly founded settlements came men and women unused to hardship. Even the poorer settlers about Boston had been accustomed in England to comfortable cottage homes. Their English village life had flowed on for centuries in the same quiet manner. Now they were compelled to live in changed ways. At first their homes were miserable one-room log cabins. Babies died from the lack of warmth, good food, and suitable clothing. Buildings frequently caught on fire, particularly in winter. The cows and other live stock which the settlers brought across the ocean with such difficulty were the prey of wild animals. Travel was dangerous even from one small settlement to another, for one might freeze, lose one's way in the forest and perish, or be attacked by wild animals or Indians.

Life gradually became easier, however, after the first few years in the New World. Log cabins were replaced by rough, clapboarded frame houses, which were roomier, warmer, and safer against fire and weather. Community buildings were erected, and roads connecting the settlements were improved. Handicrafts sprang up as most colonists turned Jacks-of-all-trades.

Shortly Edward Johnson was proud to be able to write of the success of the colonists:

> For this year, 1642, the number of freemen added were about 1,232. . . . Here the reader is desired to take notice of the wonderful providence of God . . . that in ten or twelve years planting there should be such a wonderful alteration, a nation to be born in a day, a commonwealth orderly brought forth from a few fugitives. . . . This remote, rocky, barren, bushy, wild-woody wilderness, a habitation for lions, wolves, bears, foxes, raccoons, beavers, otters, and all kinds of wild creatures, a place that never afforded the natives better than the flesh of a few wild creatures and parched Indian corn . . . now has become a second England for fertility in so short a space that it is indeed the wonder of the world.[1]

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[1] Adapted from Edward Johnson's *Wonder-Working Providence of Zion's Saviour in New England, 1628–1651* (edited by J. Franklin Jameson for the Original Narratives of Early American History Series), pp. 209–210. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1910.

These settlements were indeed becoming a *New* England.

In the meantime, what of the other European nations? Were they too establishing colonies in America? What of the Dutch, the French, and the Spanish? They all had explorers searching the seas. Were they not colonizing too?

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Drake, Samuel Adams. The Making of New England, 1580–1643. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1905. From the earliest explorations to the formation of the Confederacy (1643). Tells of the social and industrial conditions. Interesting, reliable.

Faris, John T. Real Stories from our History. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1916. True stories from the landing of the Pilgrims to the invention of the telephone. Pioneer and frontier life and great inventions.

Griffis, W. E. Young People's History of the Pilgrims. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1920. Reasons for Puritans leaving England, what England was like at the time, the life in Holland, hardships and bravery of the Puritans, etc.

Guerber, H. A. The Story of the Thirteen Colonies. American Book Company, New York, 1898. The story of America through the Revolution; many thrilling incidents of the early settlements.

Hart, A. B., and Others (Editors). Source Readers in American History. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1902. Source material written for children. Accounts of the Indians, life of the children in the colonies, work, play, and adventures.

Hawthorne, Nathaniel. Grandfather's Chair. True Stories from New England History: Part I, 1620–1692. A well-known classic.

Tappan, E. M. Letters from Colonial Children. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1908. These are letters from children in the early colonies.

CHAPTER V

DUTCH, FRENCH, AND SPANISH SETTLEMENTS IN NORTH AMERICA

I. THE DUTCH BUILT A "NEW NETHERLAND" ON MANHATTAN ISLAND AND ALONG THE HUDSON RIVER

Henry Hudson's enthusiastic report (1609) of a broad river leading to the interior of North America aroused interest among Dutch business men. Hudson told glowing tales of the richly furred animals which roamed the forests, and assured his Dutch employers that a fine colony could easily be built on the wide, deep harbor at the mouth of the Hudson River.

Hudson's report excited the trading zeal of the Dutch. A fur trade to rival that of the English and the Spanish! Hardly six months passed after Hudson's return before brightly colored little vessels sailed forth to make money for Dutch business men. Back they came laden with furs of beaver, otter, and mink, bought from the Mohawk Indians in America for a few glass beads and some bright cotton cloth.

The first little trading settlement was made in 1613. Four houses were put up on Manhattan Island. Indian customers were sought along the near-by rivers, and a few explorations were made as far south as Delaware Bay and as far north as Albany. Soon a group of Amsterdam and Hoorn merchants formed the United New Netherland Company, obtained a grant of land from their government and with it a monopoly of the fur trade. The regions granted to the company extended from the Virginia grant on the south to 45 degrees latitude on the north.

The Dutch traders sailed up the Hudson River as far as the present site of Albany (1624). There Hudson had found an abandoned French blockhouse, built in 1540. The Dutchmen repaired it and renamed it first Fort Nassau and later Fort Orange.

Trade flourished with the friendly Iroquois Indians. Treaties were made between Indians and Dutch. The United New Netherland Company began to dream of establishing colonies in America, but its dream was not to be realized, for soon another company of business men, called the Dutch West India Company, took its place. The new company aimed to settle the land, spread the Protestant religion among the Indians, and carry on trade in furs and tobacco.

Holland was now entering lands already claimed by England. The English did not like this, and there was trouble from time to time between the Dutch and English trading companies. In 1621, however, an alliance was formed between the English and the Dutch against their old enemy Spain. Because of this agreement England decided not to pry too closely into what the Dutch were doing around the mouth of the Hudson River.

The bargain: The Indians sell the island of Mana-hata to the Dutch for $24!

Pretty trifles! Beads, bright cloth, mirrors! Those were the coins which shrewd Peter Minuit used to tempt the fancy of the Algonquin Indians whom he found on Manhattan.

What did the Dutch ask in exchange for them? A long and narrow island, about 15,000 acres in extent, lying between the Hudson and the East rivers.

Crafty Peter Minuit, the governor-general who made the purchase! Did he foresee that the great harbor which lay so clear and sparklingly blue in the sunlight would some day be alive with boats of every nation? Did he guess that the great river which flowed from the north would become a highway of commerce between the island port and a vast, rich interior? He may have imagined the island and the surrounding region filled with farms and towns, but could he imagine the fabulously wealthy city of New York rising to cover it with huge buildings and millions of people?

Very likely Peter's imagination was not equal to such visions. Yet he knew he had made a good trade, a very good trade. No doubt the Algonquins did, too. It was indeed bargain day on the little island. Braves, squaws, and papooses took childish delight in the trinkets for which they had sold their birthright, and Peter no doubt chuckled as he thought of the 60 guilders ($24 in our money) with which he had bought the entire island.

Then on the southern end of Peter's purchase Fort Amsterdam was built (1626). For some years it was a rough settlement, consisting of a blockhouse and a few log huts. Later more and more log huts were built, and soon there was a colony of 200 people. If they were not in comfort, at least they were not in want.

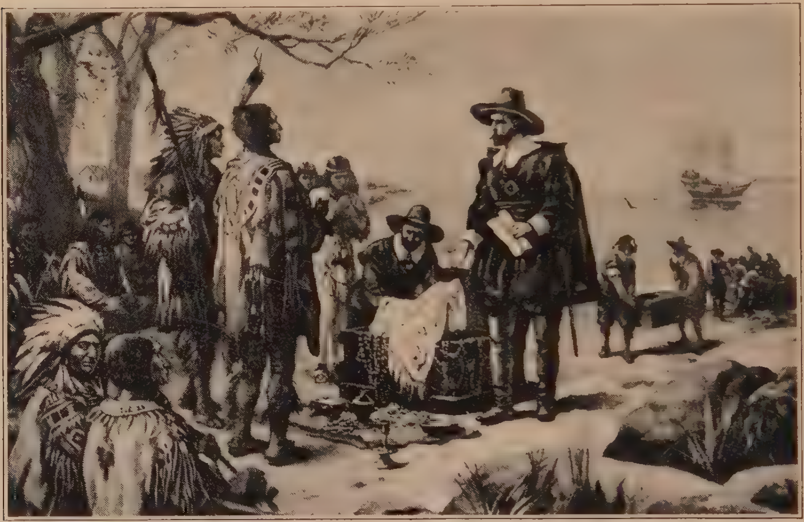

Fig. 47. In the name of a Dutch trading company, Peter Minuit purchases the island of Mana-hata from the Indians. (From a painting by Alfred Fredericks. Courtesy of the Title Guarantee and Trust Company, New York)

These settlers fed upon fish from the harbor, small game from the woods, and the sparse corn crop which they grew on the rocky soil. Their clothing was as rough as their food. In the winter they were dressed in warm animal skins. In the summer the few women who were there wore a single garment reaching from neck to ankle.

But the Dutch colonists were a healthy, hard-working, and thrifty group, and soon their village of New Amsterdam grew into a town. Log huts were replaced by frame houses, built much like those they had left in Holland. Household furnishings were brought from Holland. Not only comforts but luxuries were beginning to appear — tapestries, tiles, clocks, silver, and pewter.

But New Netherland was not growing so rapidly as the West India Company wished. The Dutch people in Holland were fond of their pretty, neat homes. There was little urge for them to seek the wild, new land, since they had no religious troubles at home and were prosperous and comfortable where they were.

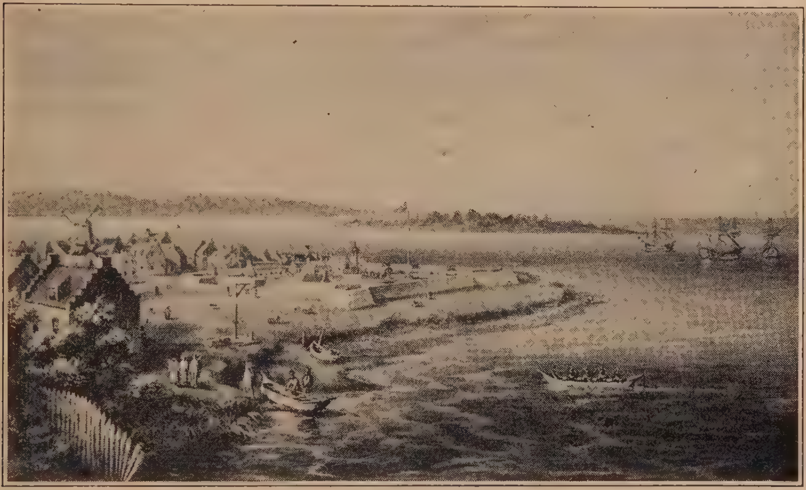

FIG. 48. The Dutch were very wise in choosing the southern tip of Manhattan Island on which to build their fort. This point faces the Atlantic Ocean and lies between the mouths of the Hudson and East rivers. (From a painting by E. L. Henry. Courtesy of the Title Guarantee and Trust Company, New York)

To encourage more people to venture across the seas and to promote agriculture the West India Company promised land along the river to well-to-do Dutchmen. Any wealthy member of the company who could bring with him 50 people was to be given a strip of land along the Hudson. These grants were enormous in extent, for while the number of acres fronting the river was named, there was no limit to the distance that the land might extend toward the interior. Thus thousands of acres were given to these Dutch settlers, who were called *patroons*.

With their family possessions and their servants to work the land, these patroons flocked into New Netherland. Their estates soon stretched along the river to Fort Orange (Albany).

The large grant-holders — among them the Stuyvesants, the Goelets, the De Vrieses, the Van Courtlandts, the Van Rensselaers, the Schuylers, the Tyssens — led comfortable lives in brick mansion houses. Their tenants and servants raised crops to support the estates.

Thus, even from the earliest days of the colony, the Dutch settlers were divided into classes. There were, first, the patroons, who were very wealthy and owned estates of thousands of acres. Next in rank were the small landowners, who were independent and thrifty in tilling their little farms. Lowest in rank were the masses of the people, who worked as servants and laborers for the patroons.

As more people came from Holland the settlers spread out over the land of the Indians, who complained to the representatives of the West India Company. They said that the colonists' cows strayed into their unfenced cornfields, and that they could never be sure of harvesting their crops, upon which they must depend during the cold winters.

On receiving these complaints, some of the wiser patroons sympathized with the troubles of the Indians. They wanted to be friends with them and to recognize their rights.

Not so the royal governor, Kieft (1637–1647), however. He was a hot-tempered Dutchman who was neither very far-seeing nor very sympathetic and who disliked the Indians. His harsh treatment of them caused the petty annoyances to grow. He wanted to tax the Indians in order to help feed his colony and demanded of them corn, furs, and wampum. The Indians refused to pay.

Then one day came news that some pigs had been stolen from the Dutchmen. Kieft immediately decided that the Indians had committed the theft. Against the advice of many of his people, Kieft gathered together 70 men and in the middle of the summer laid waste the cultivated fields of the Indians, destroying the crops which were needed to supply them during the winter. Not satisfied with this deed, they also killed several of the Indians. Later the Dutch learned that the thieves had been white servants of their own company.

After another incident similar to this, the Indians rose against the settlers. Eleven Algonquin tribes banded together, burned homes and killed white men all along the river. It seemed for a time as though the Dutch settlements would be wiped out entirely, but the Dutch finally succeeded in breaking up the alliance against them.

Peace was restored again between Indian and white man. Before this time the Dutch had been very friendly and the Indians had been good allies in their fur trade. Many Indians had come and gone peacefully in the Dutch settlements. Often they had slept in Dutch homes. But now the Indians resented the coming of the white men. They felt that they were being pushed off the land on which they had roamed so long.

In 1664 the English seized the prosperous colony of the Dutch; New Amsterdam became New York

Almost 40 years had passed since the Dutch first settled New Netherland. In that time it had developed into a prosperous and attractive colony. By 1660 as many as 10,000 Dutch people were living in the region between New Amsterdam and Fort Orange. New Amsterdam itself had grown into a town of 1000 inhabitants. There were many pretty Dutch homes in the town and on the vast patroon lands along the banks of the Hudson. Neither the fur trade nor agriculture had disappointed the hopes of the first comers.

From the beginning, however, the Dutch had felt unsafe in their colony. The English had established new colonies near by in Connecticut, and English traders were causing the Dutch many worries. There were constant reminders that the Dutch were occupying land claimed by England.

In 1664 King Charles II of England gave all the land between the Hudson and the Delaware rivers to his brother, the Duke of York. This included the Dutch colony of New Netherland, prosperous in its fur trade and the commerce of its thriving port. Now, the Duke of York was interested both in the profits to be made in furs and in the possession of a seaport; so he sent English war vessels to seize New Netherland.

New Amsterdam was taken and the English flag was raised. All of New Netherland, from New Amsterdam to Fort Orange, fell into English hands, and the name of the colony was changed to *New York*, after its new proprietor, the Duke of York. Likewise the town of New Amsterdam on Manhattan Island became *New York City* and flew the English flag. Fort Orange became Albany. Thus it was that another colony was added to England's empire. Although Holland's empire-building was ended in America, the Dutch settlers continued to live there peacefully.

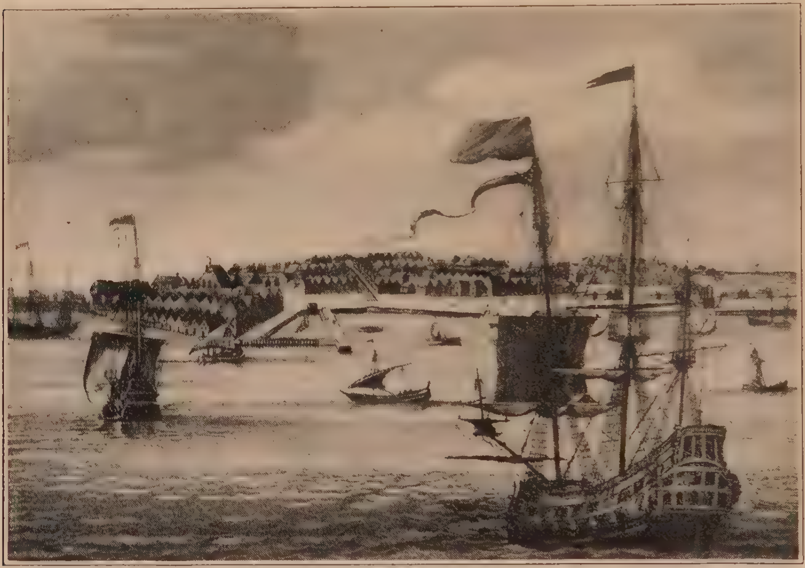

FIG. 49. New Amsterdam was already a thriving Dutch town when in 1664 all of New Netherland was taken by the English. (From an old engraving)

For some years the Duke of York ruled the colony of New York as its proprietor. He granted to his English friends huge estates, some of which were as large as the patroon holdings. English landowners thus became next-door neighbors of wealthy Dutchmen, and English immigrants settled in New York and lived in peace beside the Dutch. They also made allies of the powerful Iroquois tribes of what is now upper New York State.

The first English governor of the colony was a man of much tact and understanding. He tried to disturb the lives of the old Dutch residents as little as possible. For example, the Dutch Reformed Church — the established church of the colony — continued to hold its services. It even shared its meeting house with the English Church, the Dutchmen holding services in the morning, the Englishmen in the afternoon.

Furthermore, the coming of the Englishmen to New Amsterdam did not diminish the trade of the colony, but rather increased it.

Thus trade, the principal reason for the founding of New Netherland, became the reason for the great growth and prosperity of the colony and the city of New York. Trade was its lifeblood in the 1600's. Trade is its lifeblood today.

II. MEANWHILE THE FRENCH WERE EXPLORING AND ESTABLISHING TRADING POSTS IN CANADA AND SOUTH OF THE GREAT LAKES

While the English and the Dutch were establishing their struggling settlements along the coast from Maine to Carolina, the French in the cold, Canadian north were trying to set up rival colonies.

To the seafaring folk of Normandy and Brittany in western France the news of the discovery of the New World by Columbus and Cabot was a challenge. As early as 1504 Breton fishing vessels made trips to the waters near Newfoundland. From there it was but a step to explore the coasts and the neighboring shores. Soon a point in what is now Newfoundland was named Cape Breton. Later, in 1535, Jacques Cartier, about whom we have heard before, discovered and explored what is now the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He named the land which he found Canada, from a Mohawk word which means "village." As Cartier sailed along the St. Lawrence River he asked the Indians from time to time for the names of the villages he passed. Frequently their reply was "canada." From this Cartier was led to think that the country was called Canada. Thus the great British Dominion of today received its name.

Throughout the sixteenth century several French explorers and fur-traders sailed along the eastern coast of Canada and up the St. Lawrence River. On some of these early expeditions fur-trading posts and blockhouses were built to protect the trappers and traders in their dealings with the Indians. As early as 1540 an unsuccessful attempt was made by Cartier and others to establish a village near the present location of the city of Quebec.

For over 60 years, however, after the first French explorers started out, there were no permanent French settlements in North America. There were a few fishermen and fur-traders, and they were doing a thriving business, but of settlements there was none.

Samuel de Champlain, the real founder of New France

Then it was that an important leader appeared upon the scene, Samuel de Champlain. Champlain was a fine type of Frenchman, loyal, brave, and charming. In 1604 he succeeded in establishing an insecure little settlement in the land called Acadia. This was the home of Evangeline, the heroine of Longfellow's poem by that name. It included Maine, Nova Scotia, and a part of Newfoundland. The first settlement in Acadia was named Port Royal, afterwards called Annapolis.

Leaving the settlers at Port Royal, Champlain went exploring, looking for a good site for a colony. (See map of figure 50.) On his several voyages he made many charts and maps of the northeastern coasts of North America. He explored the Penobscot and Kennebec rivers and Casco Bay, in Maine, and the Charles River, far south, in Massachusetts. Thence he went on around Cape Cod.

When Champlain returned from his second trip, he found that his gallant company in Port Royal had established a good fortress and were well supplied with maize, wheat, barley, and game from the forest. The colony looked very prosperous and the men were in high spirits.

They were doomed to disappointment and misfortune, however. Word came soon that the King had taken back the charter granted to the first fur-traders. Thus Port Royal was left without money to support it. The brave colonists were bitterly disappointed. Champlain was especially downcast, for he believed earnestly that fortunes could be made in the fur trade. He and his friends returned to France. He begged the King to renew the charter not only because of the fur trade, but because he desired to build lasting colonies and convert the Indians to Christianity.

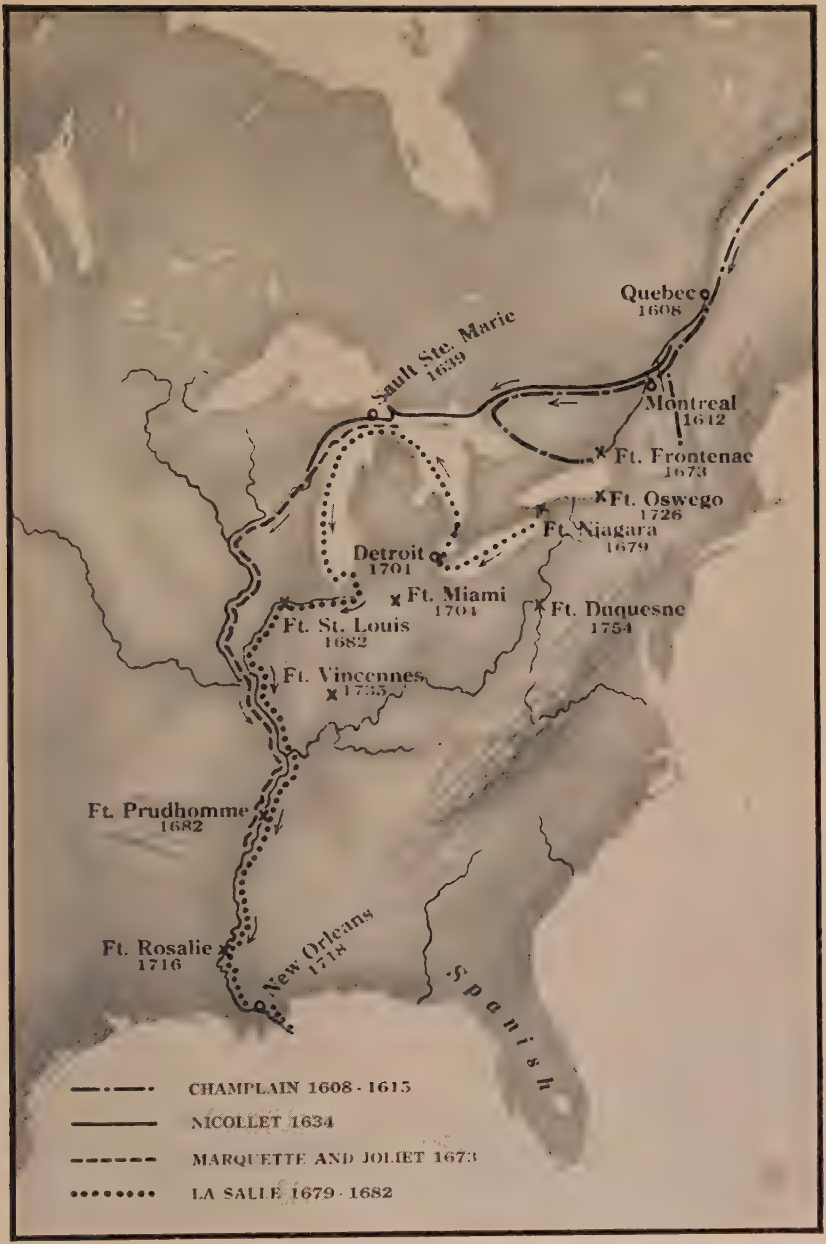
Quebec
1608
Sault Ste. Marie
1639
Montreal
1642
Ft. Frontenac
1673
Ft. Oswego
1726
Ft. Niagara
1679
Detroit
1701
Ft. Miami
1704
Ft. Duquesne
1754
Ft. St. Louis
1682
Ft. Vincennes
1735
Ft. Prudhomme
1682
Ft. Rosalie
1716
New Orleans
1718
Spanish
CHAMPLAIN 1608 - 1615
NICOLLET 1634
MARQUETTE AND JOLIET 1673
LA SALLE 1679 - 1682

Fig. 50. The routes of French explorers and the location of important French forts

At length the charter was renewed. Champlain returned joyfully to his beloved wilderness. With the aid of 28 settlers he founded Quebec (1608). The first French homes were built there in 1617 with the coming of two French wives to Canada.

The first winter in Quebec was a terrible one. The colony was 350 miles north of where the Dutch were to settle a few years later. The climate was very cold six months of the year. The great St. Lawrence River was frozen over, and the snow never left the ground from November until April. The little French settlement was in great distress and sent word to France that it was in dire need of supplies. But the French proprietors were not so attentive to their colonists as they might have been. They wanted profits, and their profits were cut down by each boatload of supplies sent.

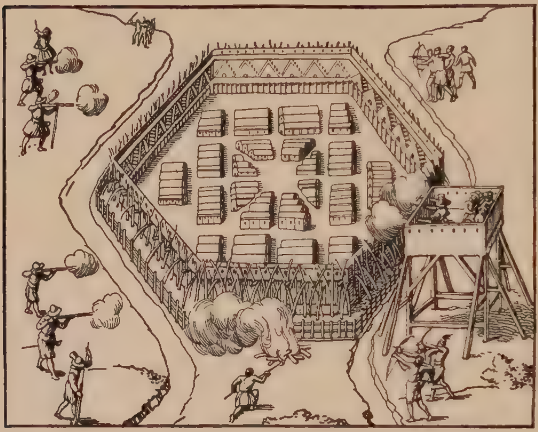

FIG. 51. This is a copy of a drawing by Champlain. It illustrates an Iroquois fort being attacked by the French and their Indian allies

In the meantime Champlain and his band of half-starved men pushed south and west into the wilderness. The only way to overcome the difficulties before them was to make friends with the Indians. To this end Champlain became an ally of the Hurons and other Algonquin tribes, who lived north of Lake Erie and Lake Ontario.

This was an important event in the New World, for the Hurons were bitter enemies of the Five Nations, those powerful tribes of Indians to the south. Because of their friendship with the Hurons, the French also became the enemies of the Five Nations. These tribes afterwards became the allies of the Dutch and English. We shall learn more of that later.

In 1611 Champlain built a fur-trading post at Mont Royal, on the site of which was founded (1642) the city of Montreal. From Mont Royal Champlain and his men pushed into western lands on Lake Ontario and Lake Huron. At each trading post they built barnlike shacks to protect them a little from the severe weather. They were, as Francis Parkman, one of America's first great historians, said:

> A few, shivering Frenchmen among the snow-drifts of Acadia, while the hand of Champlain upheld the "Emblem of France" on the rock of Quebec. These were the advance guard, the forlorn hope of civilization, messengers of hope to a desert continent.[1]

In 1625 these brave Frenchmen received good news. The people at home had at last begun to think seriously of building lasting colonies in America. A trading company called the Company of New France or the Company of One Hundred Associates was formed. Its directors were given the control of the fur trade of Canada, and in return the company was to furnish 4000 men and women for colonization. Only Catholics and Frenchmen were to be allowed to settle. In 1633 Champlain was appointed first governor of New France.

Nicollet explores Lake Michigan while Champlain is clinging to the colonies

In the meantime the young Jean Nicollet was sent by Champlain on an expedition to the west. He was to find, if possible, the western body of water of which many Indians spoke. Nicollet went up the Ottawa River to Lake Nipissing, then to Georgian Bay and through the narrow straits into Lake Huron. Thence he passed through Sault Ste. Marie into Lake Superior. There he met Indians who had never before seen white men and who believed him to be a god because of his strange dress and firearms.

From the Indians along the shores of Lake Michigan Nicollet heard of the Father of Waters, or Mississippi River. He believed that this must be the western ocean which explorers had been seeking for so long. He returned to Quebec with his news.

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[1] Francis Parkman, *Pioneers of France in the New World*, p. 296. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1906.

The Wealth of New France was not in Colonies but in its Fur Trade

The Great Lakes were but a part of the waterways which lay in New France. There were Georgian Bay and the mighty St. Lawrence River and its tributaries, which drained the region between the Great Lakes and the ocean. There were also innumerable smaller lakes and rivers. The farthest French outposts lay along waterways more than 1000 miles from the Atlantic.

How these waterways called to French adventurers! Year after year white men pushed farther and farther along them. How the wild life of the wilderness attracted roving young men!

Always there was the hope of great profits in furs — a hope which went far toward making up for the severe hardships of exploration. It was the ambition of these young traders to supply the markets of Europe and even of far-off China with pelts which were worth much in gold.

The fur-traders were picturesque young men, indeed. Many were daring adventurers; others were well-educated gentlemen from good, old French families. They were all caught by the spell of the woods, and the wilderness was their home. For this reason they came to be called *coureurs de bois* ("runners of the woods"). Steady work in a sober community was not for them. They disregarded the advice of family and king that they should marry French girls, cultivate their little farms, and live dignified lives. Cultivate farms, indeed, when a man could roam the woods on the scattered frontiers of New France!

Every winter the *coureurs de bois* rounded up the Indian trappers and traded with them for their supply of furs. Every spring both Indians and traders gathered in Montreal and Quebec. Hundreds of canoes paddled from Lake Huron, Lake Michigan, and even Lake Superior, down the waterways to Montreal. There a great fair was held, at which the Frenchmen bought the valuable furs at a good profit.

The Indians received a great variety of trinkets in exchange for the pelts. There were bracelets, combs, and necklaces, as well as blankets, cloth, knives, needles, cooking utensils, and axes. The French had spent but little on these cheap decorations.

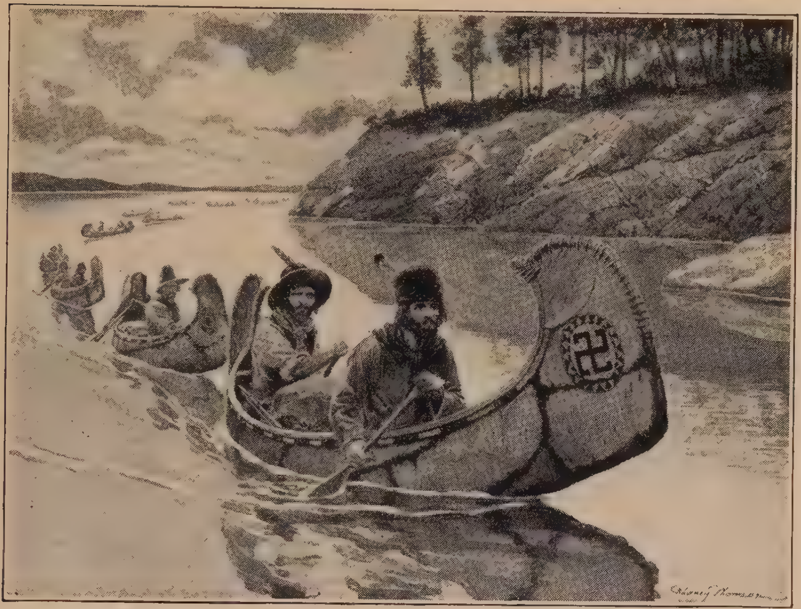

FIG. 52. Each year canoe fleets laden with furs traveled through the Great Lakes and down the smaller waterways to the towns of Canada. Fairs were held, the furs were sold, and back the *coureurs de bois* paddled into the wilderness for another year of trading with the Indians

In addition the French settlers, like the Dutch and English, were not above playing upon the Indians' liking for strong liquor. Scores of barrels of brandy and whisky were traded to the Indians at the annual fair. The effect of the drink upon the Indians can readily be imagined.

JESUIT MISSIONARIES ALSO WENT INTO THE GREAT-LAKES REGION TO CONVERT THE INDIANS

At the time that New France was coming to life a brotherhood of Catholic priests, the Jesuits, was founded in Rome. After the middle of the 1500's this organization grew very strong. Its members and members of many other brotherhoods traveled over much of the known world in order to convert all heathen people to the Catholic faith.

New France had many Indians to be converted; so the black-frocked Jesuit fathers followed the first explorers into Acadia and Quebec. Thence they spread westward, where many of them faced starvation and torture by hostile Indians in order to carry on their work.

They not only ministered to the spiritual health of the Indians, they also nursed them in illness and advised them about many matters. Here is a glimpse of what the Jesuits did during a pestilence among the Indians near Lake Huron:

> The pestilence, which for two years past had from time to time visited the Huron towns, now returned with tenfold violence. With it soon appeared a new and fearful scourge — the smallpox. Terror was universal. The contagion increased as autumn advanced, and when winter came . . . its ravages were appalling. . . . The Jesuits, singly or in pairs, journeyed in the depth of winter from village to village, ministering to the sick. . . . No house was left unvisited. As the missionary entered one of these smoky dens, he saw the inmates seated around the fires in silent dejection. Their heads were muffled in the robes of skins.
>
> Everywhere was heard the wail of sick and dying children. On or under the platform at the sides of the house crouched squalid men and women in all the stages of the distemper. The Father approached, made inquiries, or spoke words of kindness. Then he administered his harmless remedies or offered a bowl of broth made from game brought in by the Frenchman who hunted for the mission. The body cared for, he next addressed himself to the soul.[1]

HAVING EXPLORED THE GREAT LAKES THE FRENCH TURNED SOUTHWARD TO FIND THE GREAT WATER

French traders, explorers, and missionaries had for many years been traveling along the Indian trails that ran through the wilderness around the Great Lakes. Their canoes had cut the waters of the north and for long they had heard from the Indians of a great river to the south. *Perchance that was the route to the long-sought Indies!* The adventurous French began to seek that river, which might, they thought, lead to unknown riches in the Far East.

That you may see how easy it was for the French to travel from their northern water system — which included the Great

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[1] Francis Parkman, *The Jesuits in North America*, pp. 87–89. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1895.

Lakes and the St. Lawrence — to the Mississippi, study the map of figure 50. See how close to the heads of rivers flowing into the lakes are the heads of rivers flowing into the Mississippi. Only a few miles of land lie between them.

The French, after paddling like the Indians up one river, carried their canoes on their shoulders until they reached the head of the other river. These carrying places were called *portages*.

Louis Joliet and Father Marquette (1672–1673) and La Salle (1682) were the first Frenchmen to explore the Mississippi

From the shores of Lake Superior, where he had sought a copper mine, came the trader Louis Joliet. From the mission of St. Ignace at the head of Lake Michigan came the Jesuit priest Father Marquette. In 1672 these two, with their party, started forth in search of that river which they thought would lead them to the Gulf of Mexico or, perhaps, to the far-western sea.

Learning all they could from the Indians about the journey ahead of them, they went on from branching river to parent stream. Frequently they were warned that they must not go farther, that ferocious tribes would put them to death, that there were great demons in the river whose roars could be heard for miles and who would engulf their boats as they neared the abyss. On they went, however.

Finally, after weeks of difficult travel, they saw before them a great river and, as Marquette said, "with a joy which I cannot express," they steered their canoes down the Mississippi. For days they went down the stream the Indians called the Father of Waters, which, 130 years before, the Spaniard De Soto had crossed many miles to the southward. For weeks they saw no other human beings.

Through the dangerous junction of the Missouri and the Mississippi they went with their light canoes, past the place where the great city of St. Louis now stands. A few days later they saw on their left "the mouth of the stream to which the Iroquois had given the well-merited name of Ohio or the Beautiful River." Finally, where the Arkansas River joins the Mississippi, they decided that they had gone far enough. Convinced that the Mississippi River emptied into the Gulf of Mexico and not into the western ocean, they turned back. They were then only 700 miles from the mouth of the Mississippi River. After months of strenuous traveling, they reached their home settlements in eastern Canada.

Ten years later, 1682, another French explorer, La Salle, planted the flag of France at the mouth of the Mississippi River. La Salle traversed much the same route as had Joliet and Marquette, but continued on for the remaining 700 miles. After difficulties and dangers which would have seemed insurmountable to a weaker man, La Salle reached his journey's end. "As he drifted down the turbid current between the low and marshy shores, the brackish water changed to brine, and the broad bosom of the great Gulf [of Mexico] opened on his sight, tossing its restless billows, limitless, voiceless, lonely, without a sail, without a sign of life."[1]

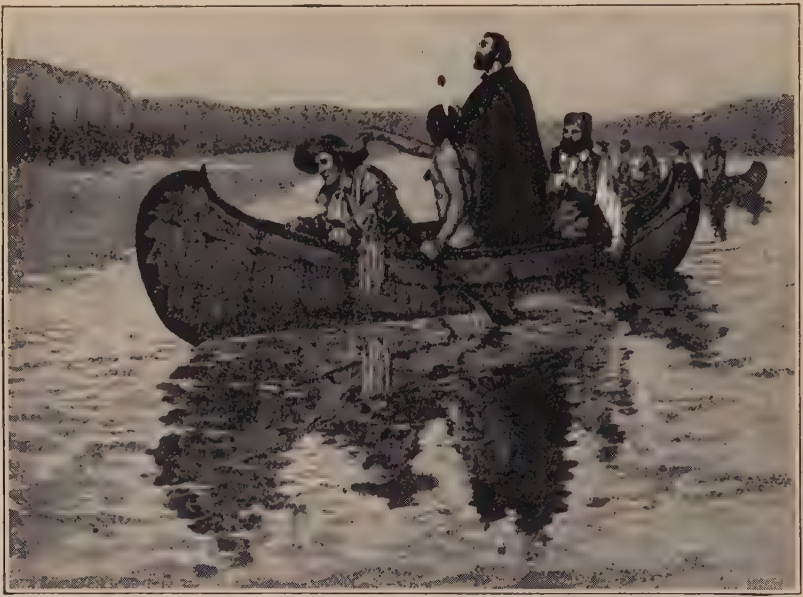

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FIG. 53. Louis Joliet and Father Marquette were the first French explorers to discover the Mississippi River. Traveling southward, they explored it to within 700 miles of its mouth. (From a painting by J. M. Marchand)

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[1] Francis Parkman, *La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West*, pp. 281–283. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1869.

As Parkman describes it,

> On that day the realm of France received . . . a stupendous accession [Trace it on the map of figure 57],— the fertile plains of Texas, the vast basin of the Mississippi from its frozen northern springs to the sultry borders of the Gulf, from the woody ranges of the Alleghanies to the bare peaks of the Rocky Mountains,— a region of savannahs and forests, sun-cracked deserts and grassy prairies, watered by a thousand rivers, ranged by a thousand warlike tribes.[1]

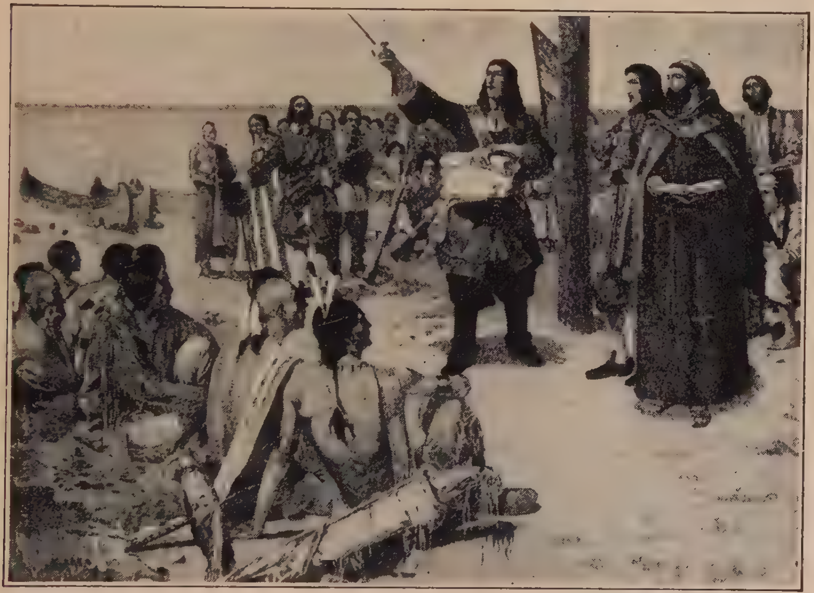

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FIG. 54. Ten years after the explorations of Joliet and Marquette, La Salle explored the Mississippi River to its mouth, where it flows into the Gulf of Mexico. He christened the territory through which he passed "Louisiana" in honor of his King, Louis XIV. (From a painting by J. M. Marchand)

This was a slight exaggeration, but by 1682 Frenchmen had explored widely west of the English colonies. A great imperial realm was laid out for France, from Quebec and Montreal on the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes in the north to the Gulf of Mexico in the south; from the Appalachians in the east to the Rockies in the west.

Great as were France's possessions, her colonies were weak.

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[1] Francis Parkman, *La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West*, p. 283. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1869.

The very vastness of the territory made settlement difficult. By 1682 the entire population of New France was less than 10,000 people and 1000 of these were in the woods engaged in the fur trade. Throughout the vast extent of territory there was hardly a strong French settlement except in the northern St. Lawrence country. France was to have difficulty in holding her empire.

It is interesting to imagine what might have happened had France tried the policy of England and admitted people of all religions to her territory. Had Louis XIV allowed French Protestants the right to settle in Canada, history might read very differently today! Five hundred thousand French Huguenots (Protestants) left France during the last 25 years of the 1600's. This was 7 per cent of the entire population. Many of them came to North America, but they settled in the English and Dutch colonies. Suppose that these men and women had poured into Louisiana and Canada — as doubtless many would have been only too glad to do. One wonders what might have happened to the English colonies between Louisiana and Canada.

III. Spanish Settlements

Following the gold-seekers came settlers and missionaries to New Spain

In the 1500's, almost before the American explorations by England and France had begun, Spain had explored much of the mighty continent of South America and the coast line of North America.

From the Strait of Magellan Spanish ships had sailed along the Pacific coast, north to what is now the state of Washington. On the Atlantic, from Nova Scotia to Cape Horn, the seas were being charted and the fringes of the continents were being visited by restless Spaniards.

South America was becoming better known than North America. To be sure, the jungles of the Amazon were to remain mysterious tangles for many years, but the open land of Argentina, the mountainous country of Peru and Chile, and the coast lands of the north near Venezuela had felt the tread of the gold-seekers and explorers.

These 1500's were the years of Spain's glory. She was mighty in Europe and supreme in America. According to one of her historians who made a census for the Council of the Indies in 1574, settlers were following in the path of the explorers. In the *Description of the Indies*, as the report was called, it is stated that there were 200,000 Spaniards in the New World at that time. These people had built cities, towns, and mining settlements from Mexico to Chile and had driven the Indians from power.

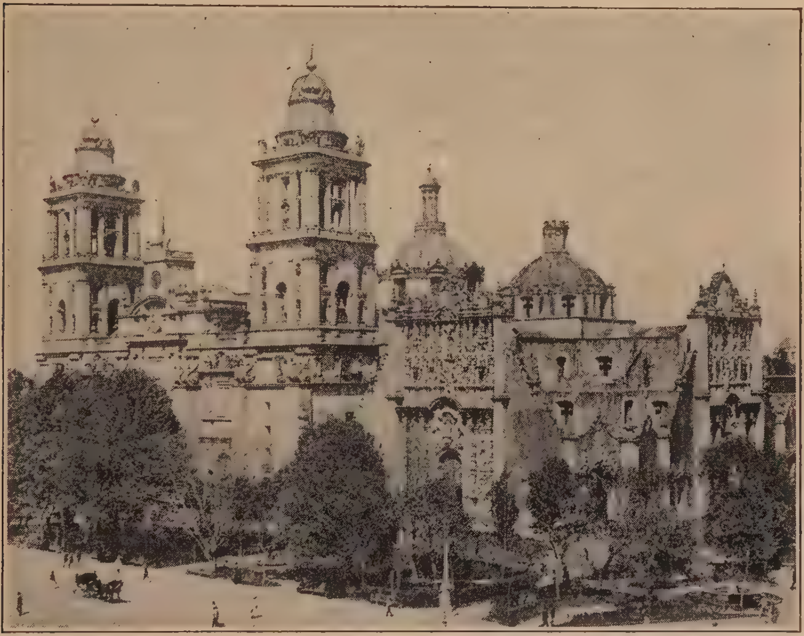

FIG. 55. As the Spanish settled in the New World they built homes and churches much like those they had left. This old cathedral in Mexico City was begun in 1573

In the ancient Aztec capital of Mexico City, 200 Spanish families ruled supreme. Most of these people were merchants, shopkeepers, traders, or officials. Outside the city there were many powerful landowners who worked enormous estates by the labor of the Indians whom they had enslaved.

The Spanish invaders had wiped out the Aztec religion with its bloody sacrifice. They had stripped the Temple of the Sun and had destroyed nearly all the wonderful Aztec manner of living.

In its place they had put their own government with its viceroy. They had built their own public buildings, their churches, monasteries, and hospitals. There was even a high school for Spanish boys and girls, and the University of Mexico had been founded.

Throughout Yucatan and along the coast of Mexico were scattered many other Spanish settlements of planters, merchants, shopkeepers, traders, miners, and officials.

There was a thin sprinkling of Spanish settlements over the vast South American continent. About one seventh of the families were those of landowners who managed great plantations, where they raised cereals and sugar cane and herds of live stock that gave them both wool and food. Quito, the ancient home of the Children of the Sun, held new Spanish monasteries and hospitals. Jesuit priests were there, too, determined to spread the work of the Church in South America.

Thus, in 1574, over 30 years before the first English settlement was made in Virginia, Spain was rapidly colonizing the mighty empire which she had claimed. Across one huge continent and one third of another the vast domain sprawled. Gold had been found in enormous quantities. For 50 years it had poured across the Atlantic into the treasuries of Charles V and Philip II until Spain was, indeed, a mighty and powerful nation.

Only a few years after the *Description of the Indies* was written, however, Spain's power began to fall. The Spanish fleet, the Armada, was wiped out by the English war vessels and by storms in 1588. That was the end of Spain's sea power.

Conditions at home became worse. There were constant wars. By the time that England had thirteen firmly planted colonies on the North American coast, Spain's doom was near. She tried hard to clutch about her the remains of her mighty empire in America, but she was tottering. In the end her glory disappeared.

The Spanish sought to settle Florida and California

Before her fall, as we have said, Spain tried to attract her people to the New World. You saw how successful they had been in South America. In North America they were tempted especially to go to Florida. Here was a place where the treasure-laden ships on their way from Mexico to Spain might establish a safe port. English and French pirate ships often lay in wait to attack the treasure fleets of the Spaniards. Hostile Indians thronged the shores and murdered the crews of ships that were wrecked on the Florida coast.

So the Spanish rulers made several attempts to build permanent settlements in Florida. One attempt was made by taking out 600 pioneers to settle at Coosa (1527). In Pensacola Bay a terrible hurricane destroyed most of the ships. A few survivors went inland and were fed by the Indians, but they themselves did nothing toward building homes or planting crops.

Next, the Spanish King sent ships cruising along the east coast as far north as Carolina. No harbors could be found, however, and since coastal settlements depend on harbors, the establishment of a colony was postponed. The real difficulty was that the Spanish settlers were not willing to engage in the hard labor necessary to start new colonies. When there was no gold to be found and no Indian slaves to labor for them, they had no desire to stay.

However, when the French began to encroach upon Spain's American settlements by establishing themselves in Florida (1562), the Spanish King became alarmed. He appointed one of his most successful seamen, Menéndez, to take out a company of 2500 people. They landed in a harbor which they named Saint Augustine and immediately fortified a large Indian house which they found.

Great plans were made for the building of Spanish settlements. The climate was warm and sunny, and plants grew as easily as in their own homeland in Spain. Sugar plantations, rice fields, lumber for ships! Menéndez dreamed that great industries would develop, and Florida would be self-supporting! Even the wealth of the gold mines of Peru would be rivaled. Furthermore, the Indians would be converted to the Catholic Church when the missionaries should come from Spain.

Three colonies were actually established: St. Augustine (1565) and San Mateo (1567), in Florida, and Santa Elena (1566) in what is now South Carolina. Soon a line of trading posts stretched between the Gulf of Mexico and Santa Elena. A good start had been made.

But Menéndez and his men had made a grave mistake. They had destroyed the colony which the French had already established in Florida and incurred the undying hatred of the French and Indians in that region. After two years of work with his people, Menéndez left for Spain. In his absence the avenging French and Indians came down upon the Spanish settlers in San Mateo and destroyed them. During this time Spain was so busily engaged at home in war with England that interest in establishing further settlements in Florida died; for many years it was left to the Indians except for St. Augustine and Pensacola (1696).

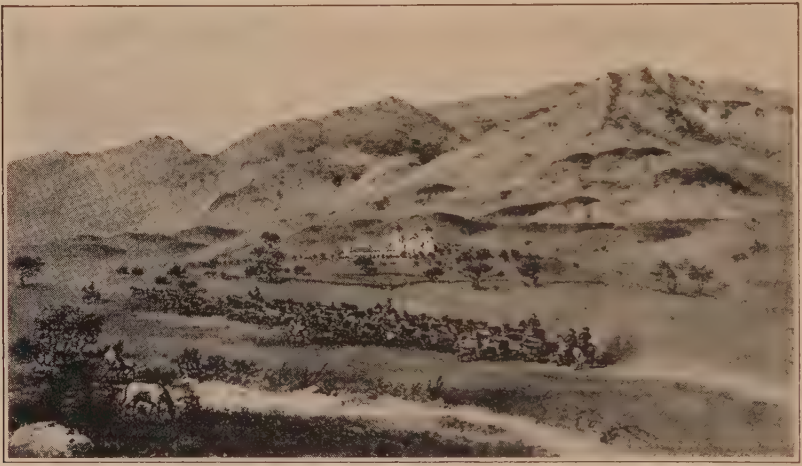

Fig. 56. During the 1500's and 1600's Spanish buildings were to be seen in both North and South America. In the background of this picture is an early California convent (Santa Barbara Mission) built by the Spanish. (From a lithograph by Vischer. Courtesy of the University of California)

Spain made one other attempt to colonize in North America. A more successful one than that on the eastern coast was carried on in the west. By 1697 Spanish priests had pushed northward from Mexico into the region now known as California. Working peacefully with the Indians, the Spanish missionaries established settlements in various regions of the territory which is now the Southwest of our United States. At first, but few Spanish settlers went with the missionaries. The plan was to teach the Indians of that region to live in permanent settlements. Private ranches, forts, and a few towns completed the organization. The colony

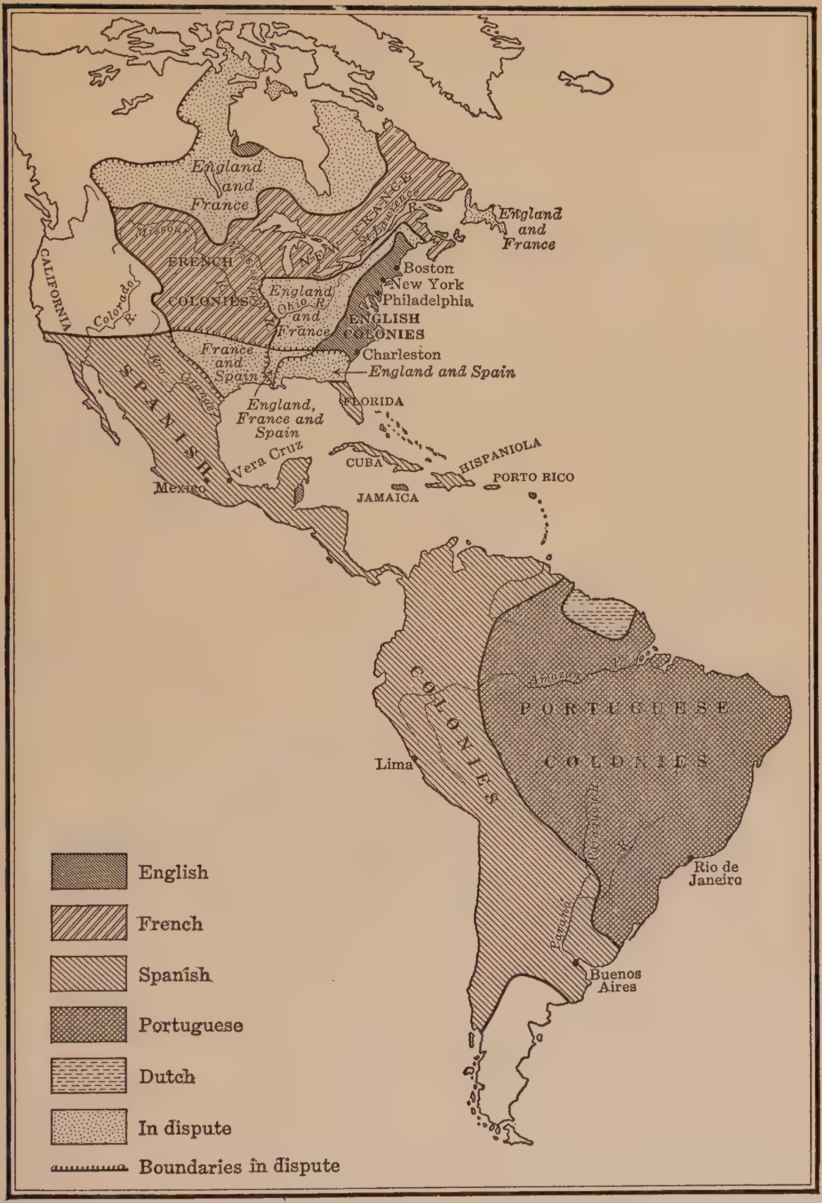
England and France
Missouri
FRENCH
COLONIES
NEW FRANCE
St. Lawrence R.
England and France
Boston
New York
Philadelphia
England Ohio R. and France
ENGLISH COLONIES
CALIFORNIA
Colorado R.
France and Spain
Charleston
England and Spain
FLORIDA
Rio Grande
SPANISH
England, France and Spain
Vera Cruz
Mexico
CUBA
HISPANIOLA
PORTO RICO
JAMAICA
COLONIES
Amazon R.
PORTUGUESE
COLONIES
Lima
Rio de Janeiro
Parana
Buenos Aires
English
French
Spanish
Portuguese
Dutch
In dispute
Boundaries in dispute

FIG. 57. By 1700 many settlements had been made and almost all the land in North and South America had been claimed by European countries. As you can see by the dotted areas, several large tracts were claimed by two or even three countries at the same time

then served as a kind of protection against any other European peoples who might settle in North America and desire to attack the Spanish strongholds in Mexico.

SUMMARY: BY THE END OF THE 1600'S, THEREFORE, ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND SPAIN HAD WELL-ESTABLISHED COLONIES IN THE NEW WORLD

The outline is now before us of the story of the very first European settlements in North America. We have seen how some of the leading countries of western Europe — Spain, England, France, and Holland — succeeded in establishing settlements in North and South America. New France with its few thousand fur-traders, trappers, and explorers lay scattered over a great expanse of territory from the mouth of the St. Lawrence River to the mouth of the Mississippi River.

East of the Appalachians, huddled closely together on the narrow Atlantic coastal plain, lay the tiny English colonies — Massachusetts Bay and Plymouth in cold New England, and Virginia in the sunny southland. Between them and slightly westward, new English colonies were being staked out.

Several thousand miles and more to the southward, Spain controlled vast colonies in South and Central America. From the broad southern plains of Argentina, from the Andes mountain country of Peru to the Aztec and Mayan lands of Mexico, and northward along the Pacific coast as far as California a huge empire owed allegiance to the King of Spain.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

See the readings enumerated at the close of Chapter VI and Chapter IX.

CHAPTER VI

FOUNDING THE REMAINING ENGLISH COLONIES

We have read the story of the establishment of the three English colonies, (1) Virginia, (2) Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay,[1] and (3) New York (until 1664 the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam).

During the hundred years after the founding of these first colonies, ten more were established:

A. The Northern Colonies		B. The Southern Colonies	
4. Connecticut	(1636)	9. Maryland	(1632)
5. Rhode Island	(1636)	10. North Carolina	(1663)
6. New Hampshire	(1679)	11. South Carolina	(1670)
7. New Jersey	(1664)	12. Delaware	(1703)
8. Pennsylvania	(1682)	13. Georgia	(1733)

For 200 years, five of these ten colonies were known as Northern colonies and five were known as Southern, although later New York, New Jersey, Delaware, and Pennsylvania came to be called the middle colonies. These ten, together with the first three, made up the thirteen original colonies. It was these thirteen colonies that, in 1789, became our country — the United States of America.

These new colonies were formed in two ways: (1) partly by people pushing out into them from the older settlements; (2) partly by newcomers from Europe, holding new charters and grants of land. Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire of the Northern colonies were formed largely by discontented people who left Massachusetts and pushed westward, north, or south. Similarly, North and South Carolina were formed largely by restless and ambitious farmers who pushed out westward and southward from the older colony of Virginia.

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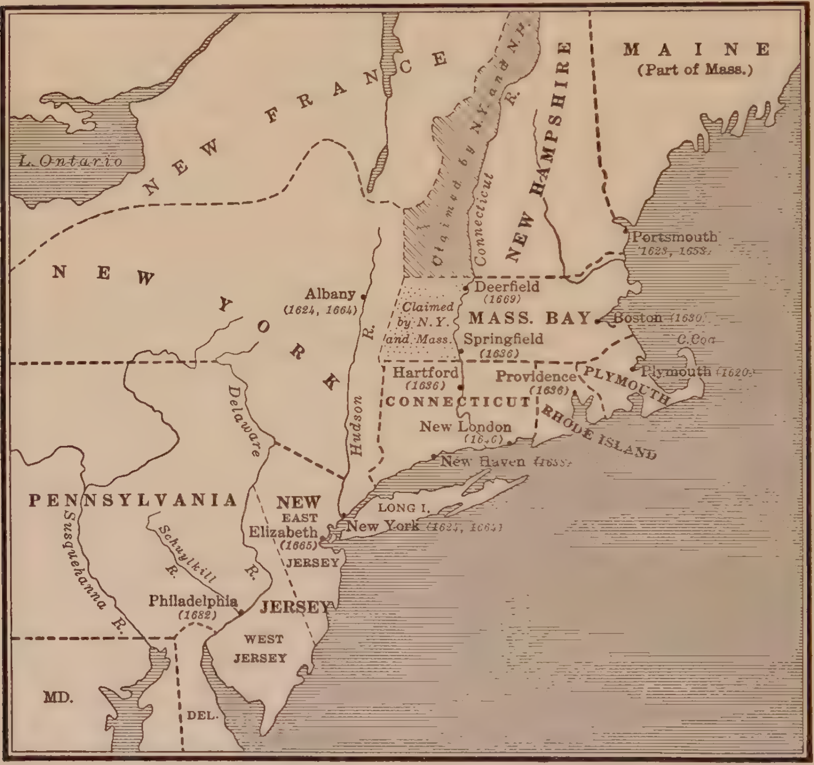
[1] Plymouth colony and Massachusetts Bay colony were joined together in 1691 under a new royal charter, forming the single colony called Massachusetts.

A. THE NEW NORTHERN COLONIES

I. RESTLESS SETTLERS FROM MASSACHUSETTS FOUNDED CONNECTICUT

Notice on the map of figure 58 that the colony of Connecticut lies between Massachusetts Bay and New York. In 1636 New York was the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam. About 75 miles northeast of New Amsterdam (New York City), the broad Connecticut River flowed into the Atlantic Ocean. The river, known then as the Fresh River, flowed down between what is now Vermont and New Hampshire through a broad, fertile green valley. It was a lovely place, much more promising for settlement than the bleak coast of Massachusetts.



NEW FRANCE
L. Ontario
NEW YORK
Albany (1624, 1664)
Claimed by N.Y. and N.H.
Connecticut R.
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MAINE (Part of Mass.)
Portsmouth (1623, 1653)
Deerfield (1669)
Claimed by N.Y. and Mass.
MASS. BAY
Boston (1630)
C. Cod
Springfield (1636)
Hartford (1636)
Providence (1636)
PLYMOUTH
Plymouth (1620)
CONNECTICUT
RHODE ISLAND
New London (1646)
New Haven (1638)
Hudson R.
Delaware R.
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW EAST JERSEY
Elizabeth (1665)
LONG I.
New York (1625, 1664)
Susquehanna R.
Schuylkill R.
Philadelphia (1682)
JERSEY
WEST JERSEY
MD.
DEL.

FIG. 58. The Northern colonies in 1689. The map shows the principal settlements in these colonies and the dates of settlement

As early as 1627 the Dutch governor Van Twiller had sent a friendly message to the people of the Plymouth colony, urging them to leave their "present barren quarters" and settle in the valley of the Fresh River. Some of the Plymouth settlers were interested but for several years remained on the barren shore where they had first landed.

The pioneers spread out along the coast and up the river

Then on an autumn day in 1633, William Holmes and a number of workmen sailed out of Plymouth bound for Connecticut to take advantage of the Dutch invitation. They carried with them the framework for a trading post. They knew that the first habitation to be built on a new frontier was a well-fortified trading post.

Out into the open sea they sailed and around Cape Cod. Then they moved west along the coast, turned in at the mouth of the Connecticut River, and sailed until they came to a good place to settle.

In the same year, however, the Dutch had established a small settlement at what is now Hartford. They repented of their generous invitation and sent a small force of armed men to stop the newcomers. As the Plymouth men sailed up the river, when

> the Dutch demanded what they intended, and whither they would go, they answered up the river to trade. The Dutch bid them strike and stay, or else they would shoot them (and stood by their ordnance ready fitted). The Plymouth men answered they had commission from the Governor of Plymouth to go up the river to such a place, and even if they did shoot they must obey their orders. . . . So they passed along, and though the Dutch threatened them hard, yet they did not shoot. Coming to their place they clapt up their house quickly, landed their provisions and left the company appointed. Then they sent the ship home, and afterwards palisaded their house well and fortified themselves better. The Dutch sent word home to the Monhatas what was done, and in process of time they sent a band of about 70 men in warlike manner with colors displayed to assault them. But seeing them strengthened and that it would cost blood, they came to parley and returned in peace. . . . They did the Dutch no wrong, for they took not a foot of any land they bought, but went to the place above them and

bought that tract of land which belonged to these, the Indians which they carried with them and their friends with whom the Dutch had nothing to do.[1]

Whole villages moved from Massachusetts

William Holmes and his little group of followers were only the forerunners, however. During the next few years many families moved westward from Massachusetts. Governor John Winthrop of Massachusetts Bay tells us that

> June 30, 1636, Mr. Hooker, pastor of the church of New Town [now Cambridge, Massachusetts] and most of his congregation went to Connecticut. His wife was carried in a horse-litter. And they drove an hundred and sixty cattle, and fed of their milk by the way.[2]

This Thomas Hooker was a well-educated man, the son of a farmer. When he came to Massachusetts in the early days of the colony, he brought with him many people whom he had known in England. These people were members of his New Town congregation.

Hooker had not been in the colony very long when he became unpopular with Governor Winthrop and the other Puritan aristocrats for criticizing their way of governing. Hooker thought that all freemen of the colony should have the privilege of voting. Winthrop and his followers, however, would allow only owners of stock in the company and members of the Puritan church "in good standing" to vote or hold office. Ill feeling arose until finally Hooker and his congregation decided to leave Massachusetts.

This group of exiles hoped to build a richer and freer colony in Connecticut. There every man would be allowed to share in all affairs which affected everyone. There also they would find better farm land than the thin, rocky Massachusetts soil. The Connecticut valley promised finer crops with less labor.

Many groups of people packed up and followed the first settlers westward. In this way three new towns were settled in Connecticut — Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield — by people from Massachusetts.

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[1] Adapted from William Bradford's "History of Plimouth Plantation," in A. B. Hart's *American History told by Contemporaries* (by permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers), Vol. I, pp. 411–412.

[2] From Seymour Dunbar's *History of Travel in America* (The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, 1915), Vol. I, p. 32.

Hundreds of people left their established homes in and near Boston and pressed along the Indian trails. Most of them, including the women and children, walked. They forded streams and laboriously worked their way through dense thickets and swamps. The Indians along the road gave them food and helped them on their way. After two weeks of hard traveling they reached the Connecticut valley and joyfully greeted friends who had made the trip before them either by water or by land.

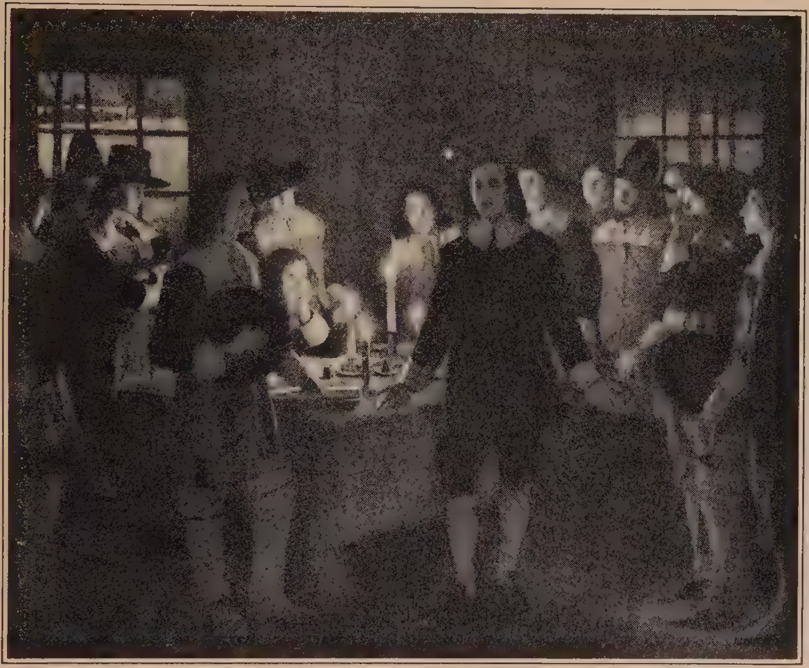

FIG. 59. Hooker and his followers signing the written laws of the new colony. These laws formed what is probably the first written constitution in the North American colonies. (From a painting by Albert Herter. Courtesy of the Connecticut State Library)

Thus was Connecticut founded in the first westward movement of freedom-loving colonists from Massachusetts. They were spurred on by the desire for a better living and more freedom.

Geographic Factors determined Places of Settlement

Note how the "geography" of the country determined where the people settled. In Massachusetts, in Virginia, and in New Amsterdam, the location of well-protected harbors, rivers, and fertile valleys had helped to fix the places of settlement.

So also in the case of Connecticut, "geography" played an important part. Homes were built in the broad fertile valley of the Connecticut River, not in the hilly, northwestern part. Thus topography — the "lay of the land"— and fertility of soil determined the location of their farms.

Easy means of transportation determined it also. In moving westward overland, settlers followed the beaten Indian trails along the watercourses, where traveling was easiest. Always, at first, they settled along the rivers, where, as villages grew and handicrafts flourished, water power could be supplied.

There was another reason for settling along the rivers — the ease of communication that they afforded with other settlements and with ocean ships connecting with Europe and the mother country.

As we carry on our study of the westward movement of the American people, let us keep constantly in mind the way in which the geographic factors of topography (especially rivers and valleys), fertility of soil, and climate helped to determine where and how the people lived.

II. Rhode Island was founded by "Freethinkers," led by Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson

During the very time that Holmes and the Plymouth men and Thomas Hooker and his parishioners were moving westward from Massachusetts to Connecticut, another little colony was being started in the wilderness just to the south. This was Rhode Island (see figure 58). Like Connecticut it was founded by freedom-loving persons who regarded many of the autocratic ways of John Winthrop and the Puritan magistrates in the Massachusetts Bay colony as unfair.[1]

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[1] You will read a longer account of this matter in the next volume of this series.

Two leaders are remembered for having done the most in establishing Rhode Island, Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson.

Roger Williams, a minister, had been welcomed by Governor Winthrop and the Massachusetts Bay colonists because of his opposition to the Established Church of England. For several years he had been regarded as a "godly minister," successful with his little colonial church in Salem.

Soon he was in trouble, however, as he began to preach against the autocratic way in which the governor, the magistrates, and the other ministers were ruling the colony. He also objected to the unfair way in which they were taking the Indians' land. As his criticism of the autocratic rulers of the colony of Massachusetts Bay became more open, he was ordered to leave the colony. Learning that Winthrop was going to send him back to England on a ship about to sail, he escaped into the forest.

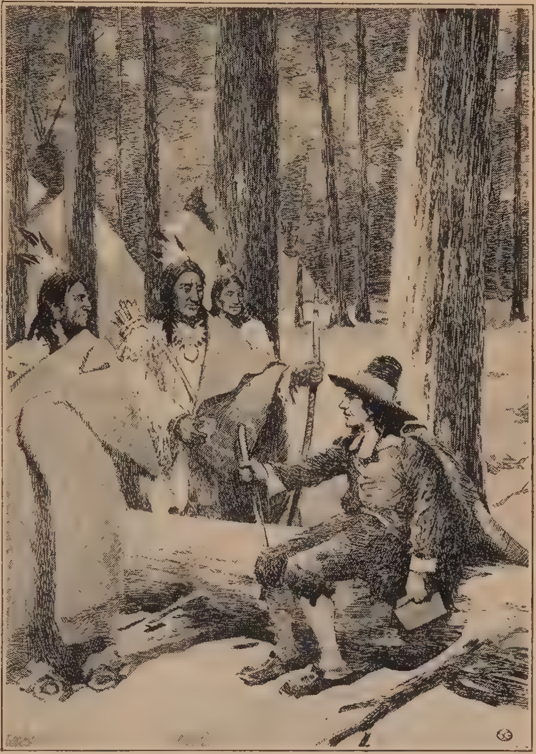

Fig. 60. Roger Williams escapes from Massachusetts Bay colony and finds friendly Indians who shelter him

Through the winter of 1636 Williams lived with his Indian friends. In the spring he and four colonists from Plymouth founded a settlement at the head of Narragansett Bay.[1] There, on fertile, sloping land in the valleys of two rivers, they purchased land from the Indians and started their new colony of freedom-loving persons. They called it *Providence*, a "shelter for persons distressed for conscience."

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[1] See the story of the growth of Providence in *An Introduction to American Civilization*, pp. 402–404.

Here too "geography" played its usual rôle. Williams chose a place on a great bay surrounded by fertile river-valley land on which crops could be raised. The coast was thickly covered with good timber useful in building houses and fishing boats. Game was plentiful in the forests, and provided both food and fur for clothing.

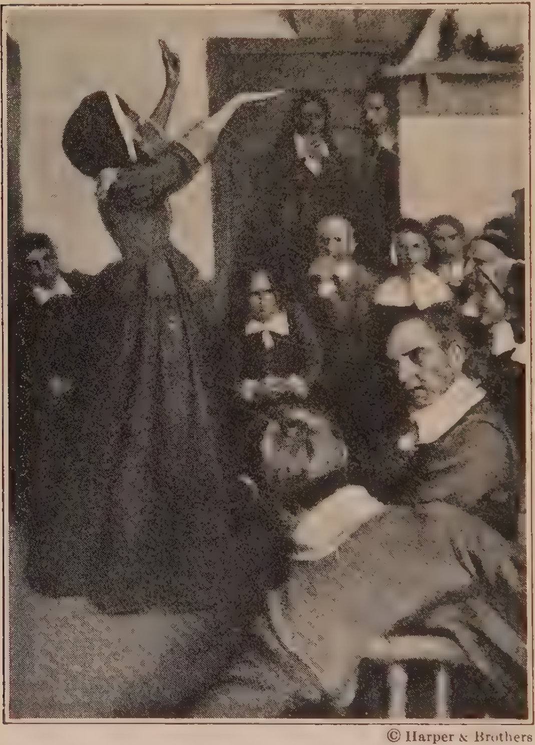

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FIG. 61. Anne Hutchinson preaching. (From a painting by Howard Pyle, for Woodrow Wilson's *A History of the American People*, 1901, 1917)

Other settlers soon joined Williams and his companions. So as the years went by, Providence grew first into a thriving fishing village, and then into a more prosperous commercial and shipping town.

In the meantime another settlement was being established near Providence by other restless liberals from Massachusetts Bay colony. They were led by Mistress Anne Hutchinson, a woman of great ability. She was the daughter of a minister of good family, had married William Hutchinson in England and had emigrated to Massachusetts Bay colony in 1634.

Mistress Hutchinson became a leader among the women of the village of Boston. She had very definite ideas about religion and lectured on matters of the church. Like Hooker and Williams she criticized the high-handed way in which the leaders of Massachusetts Bay were running the colony. As a result of her open opposition, the people split into two groups. Many people, including Vane, who was then the governor, and John Cotton, one of the leading ministers, supported her. Nevertheless, in the election of 1637 Mistress Hutchinson's group was defeated. John Winthrop again became governor, and Vane left for England in great disgust at the way Winthrop's supporters ran things.

Mrs. Hutchinson was tried by the magistrates for "traducing the ministers," which means that she was speaking disparagingly of them. Of course for this she was expelled from the church. In 1638 she and about 80 others established a new and independent settlement on the island of Aquidneck (Rhode Island), not far from Williams's settlement at Providence.

For five years the two settlements steadily grew as more and more liberal-minded folks joined them. In 1643 they were recognized as an independent colony under a separate charter from the English Parliament. Finally, in 1663, they received a new charter, and the colony became known as Rhode Island. For 180 years this charter served as the constitution of Rhode Island.

III. Meanwhile New Hampshire was becoming a Separate Colony

Twenty-five years before Winthrop and the Puritans settled at Boston the coast between Massachusetts and Maine had been explored by the French explorers from Canada, by Captain John Smith, and others. But it was not until 1622 that a grant of land was made there to John Mason, known later as the founder of New Hampshire. A tiny hamlet grew there in the fertile valley of the Piscataqua River as early as 1623.

In fifteen years, however, it was little more than a fishing and trading village. Then, as trouble grew in Massachusetts Bay over the autocratic rule of Winthrop's party, many dissatisfied members of that community moved northward into New Hampshire.

In 1638 Anne Hutchinson's brother-in-law, the Reverend John Wheelwright, founded the settlement of Exeter on land he bought from the Indians. Slowly other Massachusetts people moved northward into the general region of New Hampshire and started new settlements. Forty years passed, however, before the boundaries of the colony were definitely marked out and a separate charter granted from England. This finally took place in 1679.

IV. The Dutch, Swedes, and English settled New Jersey

In 1623 some of the Dutchmen of New Amsterdam crossed the bay and built their homes on the rich lowland along the coast between the Hudson and the Delaware rivers. (The Delaware was named for Lord De la Warr, who entered the bay a year after Hudson had explored it.) Others settled on the west side of the Hudson River, near its mouth, about where the city of Hoboken, New Jersey, is now.

The next year (1624) the South Company of Sweden was formed to make a settlement in America. The stock of the company was sold to Germans, Dutch, and Swedes. Some of the Dutch of New Amsterdam were among the owners.

The first settlement made on behalf of the company was by Peter Minuit, the man who made the famous bargain for Manhattan Island. Peter had bought more land from the Indians at the place where Wilmington now stands. Historians do not tell us whether he struck as good a bargain there as in Manhattan! He named the region west of the Delaware River as far north as the mouth of the Schuylkill River New Sweden and claimed it in the name of the Swedish company.

Then, in 1642, the New Sweden Company was formed in Sweden. It sent out a governor and many settlers, and several new villages were started, extending into what are now Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Peter Stuyvesant, who had become governor of the Dutch colony of New Amsterdam, built a fort on the soil claimed by the Swedes. The Swedes who had settled there drove the Dutch from the fort. Then Stuyvesant recaptured it and three other forts in the town of Wilmington. So New Sweden passed into Dutch control and was governed by New Amsterdam. Settlement went on by both the Dutch and the Swedes, however.

You already know that in 1664 the English captured New Amsterdam and made it an English colony (New York). At the same time they took control of the land to the southward, inhabited by the Dutch and the Swedes. That land had been granted by the Duke of York to Lord John Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. Carteret, who had been governor of the island of Jersey, near England, for eight years, had called this land New Jersey.

Berkeley and Carteret believed that a fortune could be made in the rich land of the coast; so they induced English and Scotch-Irish emigrants to go there to settle. The terms they offered were easy. The plots of land granted were small, and poor men could get them. The settlers had much greater freedom and more share in the government than had the mass of the people in Massachusetts Bay.

People from all over Great Britain came to New Jersey. They settled beside the Dutch, who for many years had had homes there. Philip Carteret, a relation of Sir George, was appointed the first governor.

Although he wanted to be a reasonable governor, Carteret soon had difficulty with his colonists. They all objected to paying the taxes that he levied on them. The Puritans, many of whom wanted to continue the government which they had had in Massachusetts, did not like his mild methods.

Finally Sir George Carteret and Berkeley grew weary of constant trouble. Berkeley sold out his interest to several Quaker gentlemen, thus dividing New Jersey into East Jersey and West Jersey. The western section was made part of the new colony of Pennsylvania (1676). Later, some parts of the colony which belonged to Carteret and other proprietors were united with New York (1688).

V. WILLIAM PENN AND THE ENGLISH QUAKERS FOUNDED THE COLONY OF PENNSYLVANIA

The Quakers, known in England as the Society of Friends, were as unpopular with the Church of England as were the Puritans. The Puritans were bad enough, with their stubborn, earnest resistance to the church; but here were the Quakers, men who wanted to return to the simple worship of early Christianity!

They detested war, refused to remove their hats in public, and addressed all men as equals by "thee" and "thou." They refused to pay taxes to support the Church of England, and they would not swear allegiance, nor would they testify under oath. In short, most good Church of England men thought that the Quakers were wicked people.

As a result many of the gentle Quakers left England for America. There, so they heard, men might worship as they believed. Had not the Puritans left England in great numbers in order to establish their own churches in America? Surely men such as they would not refuse the same privilege to God-fearing Quakers.

But alas for Quaker hopes of freedom in America! They found that there was no more kindliness toward them there than in England, for Puritans and Anglicans alike turned from them and ousted them from their colonies. In the Massachusetts Bay colony four of them were hanged, and others were flogged, fined, and banished. It seemed that they were never to be allowed to live as they wished, harming no one and unharmed by any.

But a well-to-do man of the Quaker belief finally came to the rescue. This man was William Penn, the son of Admiral Sir William Penn. The father was a man of position and wealth — a good royalist and a good Church of England man. He had won his title of admiral by helping to bring Charles II to the throne after the trouble with Oliver Cromwell.

The son, William, was a great disappointment to his father. During his college days at Oxford Penn became a friend of the Quakers. He himself was a gentle, just, peace-loving boy, of strong religious feeling. With some other students who believed in the Quaker religion, Penn refused to attend the Church of England chapel. He was later expelled from the university.

Penn's father was furious. He beat his son severely and turned him out of doors. Later he repented and tried to deal gently with the youth. He wanted to turn his son's thoughts away from those sober Quaker teachings. Young William was sent to Paris. He traveled through France for some years. Upon his return to

England he entered the gay court of Charles II and even so far forgot his Quaker beliefs as to become a soldier for a time.

But in spite of his seeming change, Penn's early Quaker belief had gone too deep to perish. Upon his father's death, when Penn was in his early thirties, he began to speak and write in defense of the Quakers. He too was persecuted and put in jail for a time for his activity.

Now, King Charles II, called the Merry Monarch, owed Penn's father a tidy little sum for his services to the throne. When Penn's father died, the debt was still unpaid, and to young Penn, as his father's heir, Charles II now owed it. Charles had faint hopes of ever being able to spare such a sum as £16,000 (about $80,000) in order to pay back annoying debts. Young Penn had fainter hopes of ever being paid the entire sum in cash. As early as 1666 he had become interested in establishing a colony for persecuted Quakers in America, and as his troubles with the King and the church increased, his interest in the plan became greater.

In 1680, therefore, he proposed to accept from the King a grant of land in the New World in place of money. Penn's request was granted by Charles. After two years Penn received the royal charter. He was given a "tract of land in America north of Maryland, bounded on the east by Delaware . . . on the northward as far as plantable." This, Penn explained, was 3 degrees northward — a tract 300 miles by 160 miles. The land was extremely fertile, and there was great mineral wealth underground. It was a beautiful region, full of fair streams and tall, wooded mountains. In September, 1682, he and 100 colonists sailed from England on the *Welcome*. Two months later the ship arrived at New Castle on the Delaware River with one third of the company wiped out by smallpox.

The colonists were wild with joy at seeing land again. And such land! New Castle was indeed a beautiful place. The Dutch, the Swedes, even a few Finns, had planted neat farms along the shore. In the wooded groves between the fields tall trees cast their shade on the river.

Penn and his men went on up the river to a lovely spot which they chose for their town. Penn called the future city Philadelphia, meaning "City of Brotherly Love" (1682). On the map of figure 58 notice the fine location of the city and of the great colony which grew out beyond it. Penn was the governor of the entire province with power to make laws, appoint officers, and grant pardons. He had a body of elected freemen to help him govern, however.

The story of the first years in the colony is a happy one. The Quakers were free at last to follow their consciences. Persecution was ended. A new life was beginning. The world looked fair enough, and the people were happy. They were also industrious.

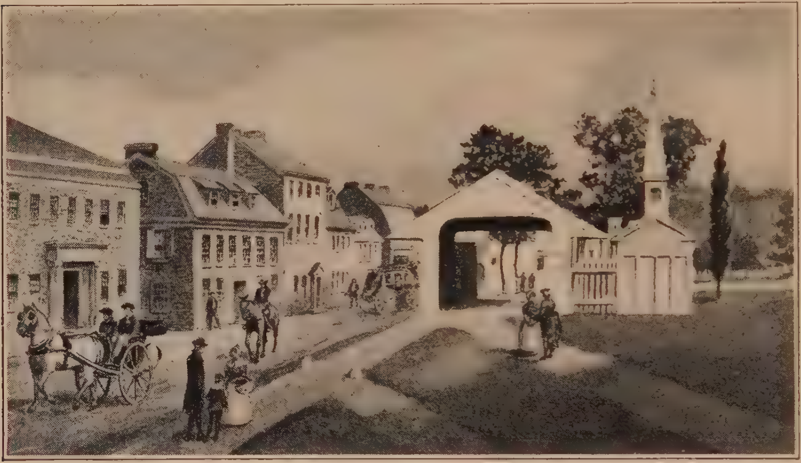

FIG. 62. An early German settlement in Pennsylvania

They started to build good red-brick houses. While their homes were being built the settlers had to live in bark huts or caves on the river bank. Yet even that was an adventure, like a summer vacation in a tent. There was little sickness and no famine. Within two years Philadelphia grew to be a thriving port town of 2500 people.

Soon Philadelphia became a charming little town. Everything looked neat and cheerful, for the Quaker women were good housewives. Their brick houses looked gay in the sun. Along the water front was a jolly tavern called the Blue Anchor, where British naval officers mingled with Quakers, who were not opposed to good living in spite of their sober ways.

Below the tavern on the water's edge squatted rows of solid-looking brick warehouses. Ships were always lying at anchor in the harbor, and there was much movement and excitement in the town when an English ship, bearing newcomers and welcome news from England, came into port. People swarmed to the wharves to watch the arrival of passengers and the loading and unloading of boats.

So it was that the town of Philadelphia, like Boston and New York, centered about the harbor. Many ships were built by the Philadelphians themselves for fishing and trading. Boys took to the sea early and many became prosperous skippers.

The Back Country was settled by People of Many Nationalities and Religions

At the time that William Penn received the grant from King Charles, he tried to encourage settlers from other countries to come to America. He sought to attract settlers from Germany, Holland, Ireland, and Wales, where he was well known.

First came a party of Welshmen, prosperous, middle-class people from the west of England. To them Penn gave a tract of land, 40,000 acres in extent, just west of Philadelphia. They were allowed to live unmolested as they had wished to live in their own country.

Second came a great horde of German settlers. Of all the people in Pennsylvania the Germans were most numerous. Many poor peasants in Germany were delighted to accept Penn's invitation to start life afresh, for their farms had been laid waste by years of warfare with France and Austria. Troops had tramped back and forth across their once green fields, many of their friends and families had died of starvation or had been killed in battle, and many of them belonged to Protestant sects which were being cruelly persecuted in Germany.

News of a land where farming was excellent and where no man questioned another's faith was a message of hope.

Eagerly the poor people of Europe read Penn's advertising circulars. Eagerly they took passage for America during the late 1600's and early 1700's. For 100 years Germans poured into

Pennsylvania to reap the benefits of Penn's kindly attitude toward all men who were persecuted. Criminals from the jails as well as free peasants were glad to sell themselves as indentured servants in order to get to the New World.

The German immigrants who were not bound over as indentured servants settled on the land as freemen. There they lived as they would have liked to live in Germany — a life of useful work, peace, and thrift, but a life of freedom. At the end of their terms many of the indentured servants also settled on the land and built homes of their own. It is estimated that by 1750 half the population of Pennsylvania was German.

THEN CAME THE SCOTCH-IRISH TO THE BACK COUNTRY

The Scotch-Irish who swarmed into Pennsylvania were very different from the quiet, stolid Germans. They were just as different from the peace-loving Quakers. A life of uninterrupted peace did not appeal to them at all.

To be sure, these fighting people were not easy to live with. How could they be peaceful? For years they had fought English domination in Scotland, and when they moved over to Ireland during the time of Cromwell they had fought Irish Catholics with no less zeal. In religion they were followers of John Knox, stanch Presbyterians. When they were not fighting Irish Catholics they were fighting Anglican landowners, who tried to force the Church of England upon them. So to the New World they brought their hardy spirit and their hatred for interference of any kind. They were sturdy men "with a chip on their shoulders" for Indian, Quaker, German, or Englishman.

Such bold courage was that of the Scotch-Irish that they soon swept to the front of the westward movement across North America. And at the front they remained as the tide flowed across the continent.

Those of the Scotch-Irish who were not sold as indentured servants did not linger long on the seaboard. Some of them settled in New Jersey, to be sure, but most of them hastened to the western frontier in the mountain back country. There they "squatted" on the land; that is, they merely settled there with-

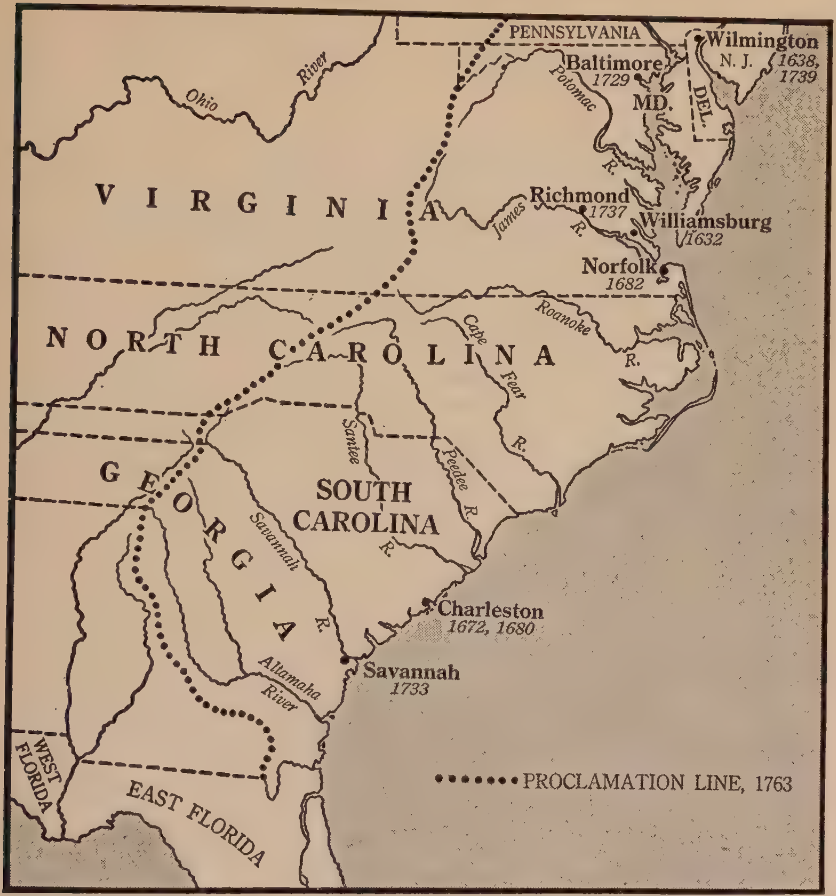
PENNSYLVANIA
Wilmington
N. J.
1638,
1739
Baltimore
1729
Potomac
MD.
DEL.
R.
Ohio
River
VIRGINIA
Richmond
1737
James
R.
Williamsburg
1632
Norfolk
1682
Roanoke
R.
NORTH CAROLINA
Cape
Fear
R.
Santee
Peedee
R.
SOUTH CAROLINA
R.
GEORGIA
Savannah
R.
Charleston
1672, 1680
Savannah
1733
Altamaha
River
WEST FLORIDA
EAST FLORIDA
PROCLAMATION LINE, 1763

FIG. 63. The Southern colonies, with the most important towns and their dates of settlement. The line which follows the Appalachian range is the point beyond which in 1763 settlement was forbidden by England

out so much as a "by your leave" from anyone. They set to work at once, hewing trees to build their rude cabins and clearing the land, and they threw themselves into the life of the frontier.

This completes our brief story of the first settling of the seven Northern colonies — Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania.

In the meantime, toward the south, six other English colonies were being settled — Virginia, North and South Carolina, Maryland, Delaware, and Georgia. In Chapter IV you read of the first establishment of Virginia. We shall now turn to the story of the building of the five other Southern colonies.

B. THE SOUTHERN COLONIES

I. LORD BALTIMORE FOUNDED MARYLAND AND ALLOWED RELIGIOUS FREEDOM TO ALL MEN

One of the stockholders in the original Virginia Company was an English gentleman named Sir George Calvert, who was a Roman Catholic. In spite of his religion Calvert was a good friend of King Charles I, and when shrewd courtiers succeeded in ousting Calvert from the Virginia Company he decided to found a colony of his own. The King was willing to help him and gave him a large grant of land north of Virginia. However, George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, died before the charter was signed, and it was then granted to his son, Cecil Calvert, who became the second Lord Baltimore. Calvert named the land granted him Maryland in honor of Queen Henrietta Maria of England. To be sure, the King asked to be given a share of all the gold and silver which might be found on Calvert's new grant. Indian arrowheads were also to be given him as part of the agreement, perhaps to gratify some curious whim.

Maryland was to be like a manor of the Middle Ages, with lords, freemen, and vassals. Only the men who owned property were to help Calvert govern.

Leonard Calvert, the younger brother of the second Lord Baltimore, was sent in 1634, with about 300 colonists, to be governor of the new colony. Near the mouth of the Potomac River the first settlement was made. It was called St. Marys.

Large grants of land were allotted to wealthy men, according to their means. Other grants of land were offered to people who could transport themselves to the colony. These lands were to be taxed, however, and the money was to go to Calvert. At first there were many indentured servants in Maryland, but soon Negro slaves replaced them, as they had in Virginia.

Calvert offered religious freedom to all men. He did not dare to found a colony for Catholics only, since Puritanism was gaining ground in the English Parliament; indeed, the Catholics who came were warned to be very careful not to give cause for uneasiness to either Virginia Anglicans or New England Puritans.

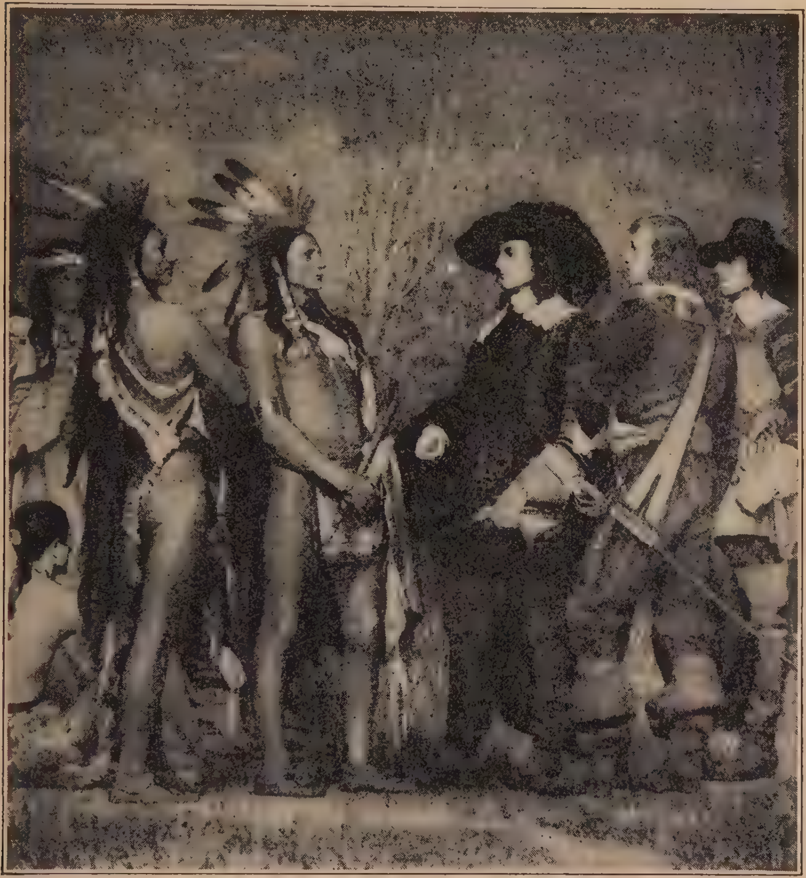

Fig. 64. While grants of land were made by European monarchs, settlers were often unable to occupy the land without the consent of the Indians. Leonard Calvert, governor of Maryland, is shown bargaining with the Indians for the site of St. Marys. (From a painting by C. Y. Turner, in the courthouse, Baltimore, Maryland)

In fact, Calvert decided that silence on the subject of religion was the safest ground. Accordingly lands were rented and granted to Puritans, Anglicans, Quakers, and French Protestants alike. The Maryland governing body even passed an act called the Toleration Act, decreeing that no person should be disturbed in his worship, of whatever form it might be; however, it provided severe penalties, even death, for any person who should deny God.

Later, with political changes in England, the Toleration Act fell into disuse. The Church of England took charge in Maryland and forbade both the coming of Catholics to the colony and public Catholic worship.

II. RESTLESS SETTLERS IN VIRGINIA MOVED SOUTHWARD AND HELPED TO FOUND THE CAROLINAS

South of Virginia lay a huge, unknown wilderness. The first colonists in Virginia often gazed far over the great grassy plains and stretches of purplish woodland, wondering and talking about the land "down yonder," which they called South Virginia.

As the richer plantation-owners of Virginia took up much of the good land along the coast, the restless poorer people began to think of moving on. There in the south were woods to be cleared, blue waters in which to fish, fertile soil and a mild climate in which to farm.

A clerk in Virginia named Roger Green made the first move southward in 1660. With 100 other people and a grant of 10,000 acres, "provided that such location is secure and is sufficiently furnished with ammunition and strength," he settled in "South Virginia." Rude cabins sprang up on newly cleared spots in the forest. Farms were planted and crude villages appeared. The settlers lived a rough, uncertain, pioneer life, in constant danger from famine and from attack by the Indians. Other people followed Green and his company of Virginians into the wilderness, until by 1700 the little hamlets had increased in number and the rude frontier life gradually gave way to regular community life.

In 1663 King Charles II granted to the Earl of Clarendon, the Duke of Albemarle, and six other court favorites the entire territory from Virginia to the Spanish possessions in Florida. (See figure 63.) This territory was named Carolina in honor of King Charles.

These noblemen, under the leadership of the Earl of Clarendon, collected settlers and went to the New World to found a colony. They planned to build a great feudal state, like the old manorial states of Europe. Their idea was similar to that of Cecil Calvert. The nobles were to hold the land and rent it out to tenants, who would farm it. Only a small portion of the land was to be sold to freeholders. The new colonists settled along the coast and called their town Charles Town (today Charleston).

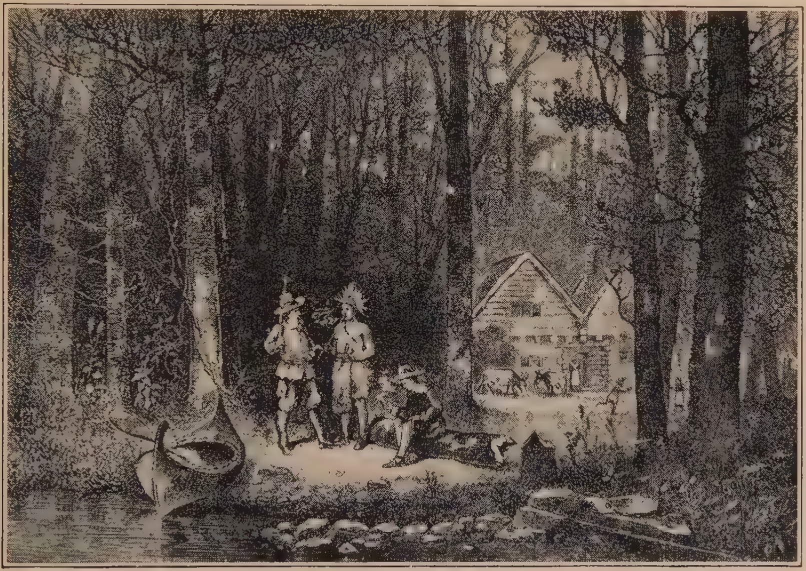

FIG. 65. Early pioneers in North Carolina having a friendly chat with an Indian guest. (From an old print)

Slowly the northern and the southern sections of Carolina grew apart. Charleston was far distant from the northern settlements near Cape Hatteras. The poorer northern frontiersmen were out of sympathy with the noble landowners of the south. Most of them were not members of the Church of England. They also resented very much the attempt to found a feudal system. They objected to the laws of the aristocrats, and there was trouble constantly between them and the royal governors.

So, in 1689, South Carolina and North Carolina were made separate colonies. South Carolina remained closely in touch with England, while North Carolina became an independent, restless, rebellious colony, always at odds with the governors.

III. How the Colony of Delaware was established

As early as 1631 the Dutch West India Company had established on the shores of Delaware Bay a small settlement which was destroyed by the Indians. Under a charter of the South Company of Sweden, the region was named New Sweden by Peter Minuit. In 1655 the Dutch, who had established New Amsterdam, seized the land of the Swedes and controlled it as a part of their colony until 1664. It was then captured by the English in the name of the Duke of York (later James II).

In 1681 William Penn purchased this land from the Duke of York. Penn's colony, however, developed north and west of Philadelphia, not south toward New Sweden. Petty quarrels and rivalries developed between Delaware towns and Pennsylvania towns, so that in 1691 Penn appointed a separate governor for the "lower counties" in Delaware. The arrangement which was made to include in the colony land on the eastern shores of Delaware Bay proved to be unsatisfactory, and in 1704 these counties formally separated and became the colony of Delaware. For some years, however, it was under the control of the governor of Pennsylvania and the form of government was the same.

IV. Georgia was founded as a Refuge for Oppressed People

Finally, Georgia, the last of the original thirteen English colonies in America, was settled in 1733. King George II, for whom the land was named, wanted to protect South Carolina from invasion by the Spaniards in Florida and by the French in Louisiana.

He was, therefore, pleased to grant (1732) the request of James Edward Oglethorpe, a kind-hearted English gentleman. For years Oglethorpe had been distressed by the conditions of debtors and petty criminals in London prisons; he longed to provide a refuge for them. He also wanted to help Protestants who were being cruelly persecuted on the Continent.

Oglethorpe won the interest of Parliament, which donated £10,000 (about $50,000) to the plan. Oglethorpe himself accompanied the first band of colonists, for he wanted to help them in their first struggles with the new land. In 1733 the first settlement, Savannah, was made on the banks of the river which bears its name.

Georgia soon became a refuge for persecuted people from all over Europe. As the years went by, German Lutherans, French Huguenots, Scotch Highlanders, Swiss Protestants, Portuguese, Jews, and English Catholics settled there. Colonists from Virginia and the Carolinas drifted across the borders, having grown dissatisfied with the aristocratic governments in those colonies.

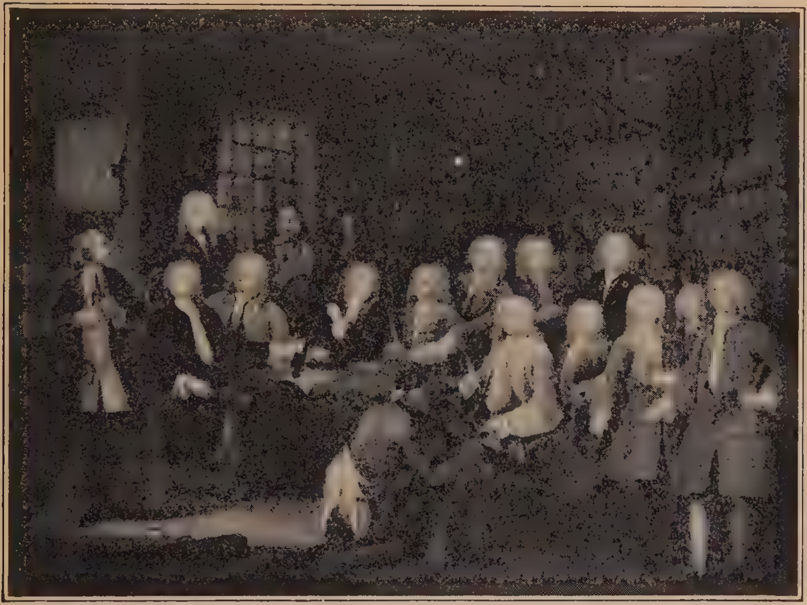

Fig. 66. Oglethorpe with a committee of the House of Commons at the Fleet Prison, London. This committee inquired into the abuses of prisoners by their jailers. (From a painting by Hogarth. Courtesy of the National Portrait Gallery, London)

The new colony served very well its purpose of protecting North Carolina from Spain and France, but at first it did not prosper. Oglethorpe refused to allow Negro slavery in the colony or to permit the sale of rum.

Now, Georgia was a colony which was intended to supply England with wine grapes, hemp, silk, and medicinal plants. English merchants had hoped to be able to purchase all these products from the new colony rather than from foreign countries. Yet labor was scarce indeed on the plantations and things were not going well; so the colonists begged the governor to permit them to own slaves. At length, in 1749, their request was granted.

Other changes came. The House of Commons in England, which was interested in the rum trade, ordered the colonists to remove the ban on rum. Furthermore, Oglethorpe's dream of tolerance toward all religions did not come true. The colonists were not all so tolerant as he, and there was constant strife. Nevertheless, the colony at last prospered in its business, and in 1753 it was regarded as the most prosperous colony on the continent.

Thus 150 Years were required for Thirteen Colonies to be settled on the Atlantic Coastal Plain

By 1750 Englishmen had settled *thirteen colonies* along the North American coast. They had filled in with farms, villages, and small towns almost the entire Atlantic coastal plain. By 1775, the time of the outbreak of the War of the Revolution, 3,000,000 people were living in homes in these colonies.

The plain was narrow, not more than 75 miles wide in New England, and in South Carolina perhaps three times as wide. A few scattered settlements had already appeared on the fringe of the Appalachian Mountains, but the mass of the population lived in towns and villages on the coastal plain.

The first 100 years of clearing forest and fighting Indians had moved the frontier back only about 100 miles from the coast. In the 1600's and 1700's less than 50 miles from the sea the Indians frequently attacked the foremost settlements. Children and women were taken captive by the Indians and adopted into the tribes, but the men were killed by torture if not dispatched outright. The adopted members of the tribe learned to speak the Indian language, the boys learned to hunt and fight like Indians, and sometimes these captives forgot their English families.

From the first three colonies — Virginia, Plymouth, and Massachusetts Bay — settlers spread outward to take up new lands. They were influenced by the desire for greater freedom — some to govern themselves more freely, others to get more elbowroom for their restless, energetic spirits! Pioneers formed Connecticut

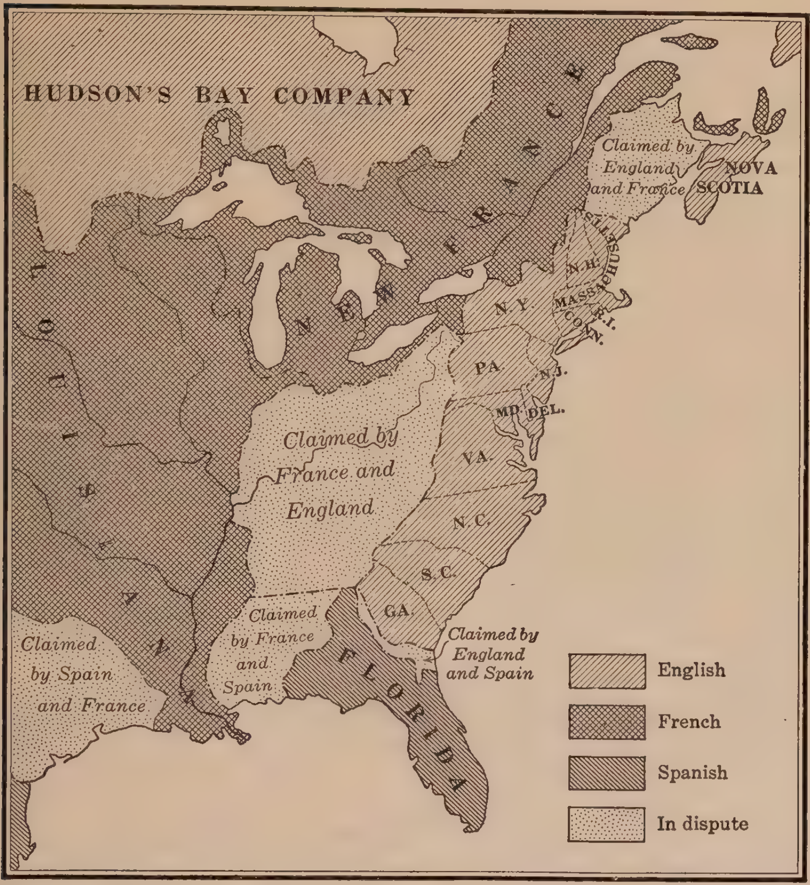
HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY
NEW FRANCE
LOUISIANA
FLORIDA
Claimed by England and France
NOVA SCOTIA
MASSACHUSETTS
N.H.
N.Y.
MASS.
R.I.
CONN.
PA.
N.J.
MD.
DEL.
VA.
N.C.
S.C.
GA.
Claimed by France and England
Claimed by France and Spain
Claimed by Spain and France
Claimed by England and Spain
English
French
Spanish
In dispute

FIG. 67. With the founding of Georgia, England had thirteen colonies along the eastern coast of North America and a great tract of land in Canada. Between these English-owned lands lay the territory owned by France — Louisiana and New France. South of the English colonies lay Florida, owned by Spain. European countries were quarreling over the ownership of the rest of this land

and Rhode Island and New Hampshire from the original Massachusetts Bay colony. Other settlements were founded by Englishmen in Maryland, New Jersey, North Carolina, and South Carolina. Some of these settlements were formed partly by English aristocrats who hoped to make money on feudal estates, partly by restless people from New England and elsewhere. Other colonies, like Pennsylvania and Georgia, were formed to provide homes for oppressed people from England and the Continent.

Slowly, year by year, immigrants moved the edge of settlement back toward the mountains. Steadily the westward movement pushed onward. The theme of "the land over yonder" sounded in an undertone to the settlers. It was never far from their minds, and steadily it lured more and more of them on to brave the dangers of the borderland.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Drake, S. A. The Making of Virginia and the Middle Colonies, 1578–1701. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1907. Interesting stories of the English in Virginia and Maryland, the Dutch on Manhattan Island, the Dutch, Swedes, and English on the Delaware, from 1578 to 1701.

Gambrill, J. M. Leading Events of Maryland History (revised and enlarged). Ginn and Company, Boston, 1917. The story of Maryland from the early colonial period through the Revolution.

Hart, Albert B. American History told by Contemporaries, Vol. I. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1897. See Parts XII, XVII, XVIII, XIX, XXII, XXIV, XXV, XXVI.

Tappan, E. M. Letters from Colonial Children. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1908. Letters from Maryland, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and other settlements in the early period from 1607 to 1733.

Williams, Sherman. Stories from Early New York History. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1906. Stories of New York from the early Dutch settlements through the Revolution.

CHAPTER VII

HOW THE COLONISTS LIVED IN THE FIRST YEARS OF SETTLEMENT, 1607–1700

When English country gentlemen migrated to Virginia in 1607, did they find comfortable houses, towns and cities, like those in England?

When the Pilgrims landed on the Massachusetts coast did they find busy villages like those which they had left in their homeland?

Did any of the European colonists find civilized ways of living like those to which they had been accustomed? Were there trim, well-kept farms, city residences, paved streets, hard, much-traveled roads?

Far from it!

Very different were the scenes which met the gaze of the first arrivals. They found barren, forbidding coasts where massive rocks jutted into the waves. They saw broad, flat lands dense with nature's tangled underbrush. Behind the shore were almost impenetrable, uncut forests.

For hundreds of miles along the coast to north and south lay a wilderness. No kindly tinkle of an unseen cowbell was heard. No distant hum of mills slowly grinding grain; no rat-a-tat of shoemakers' hammers. All the familiar noises of life in the Europe of the 1600's were absent. The wail of lonely winds through the tree tops and the endless beat of the waves broke the quiet. Other noises were more strange and fearsome — a stealthy footfall, the cry of a wildcat at night, sounds made by a people whose ways of living these Europeans did not understand and sounds made by animals many of which they had never seen.

As Governor William Bradford said, these courageous Europeans came to "a hideous and desolate wilderness, full of wild beasts and wild men; . . . ye whole countrie full of woods and thickets represented a wild and savage hue."

The First Homes of the Colonists

In such a wilderness the first need was to find some kind of shelter. From the crude materials at hand protections were made. In cold New England the colonists lived for a time in caves, which protected them but ill from the weather. In the Virginia colony, where nature was more kindly, the first homeless men lived in wigwams like those which the Indians built. Deerskins fastened to rough wooden frames served the purpose for a time. In *A True Relation* Captain John Smith wrote of the crudeness of the first temporary church in Jamestown:

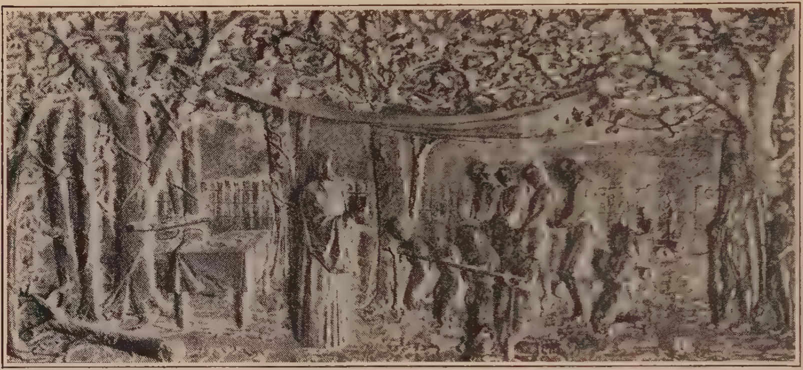

Fig. 68. A memorial tablet showing the first church service in the Virginia colony at Jamestown. No houses had yet been built. (From the Robert Hunt Memorial, Jamestown)

> We did hang . . . an old saile to three or four trees to shadow us from the sun; our walls were railes of wood; our seats unhewed trees till we cut plankes, our Pulpit a bar of wood nailed up to two neighboring trees. In foul weather we shifted into an old rotten tent . . . the best of our houses were of like curiosity, that could neither well defend from wind nor rain. . . . Yet we had daily Common Prayer morning and evening.

Most of the colonists, however, had come to America to stay and were not long content with such rude quarters. Timber was but a few steps from their doors, and soon the strong arms of the men made the woods ring with ax strokes. Cabin after cabin rose in the clearings of Massachusetts and Virginia, of Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Pennsylvania. Tiny villages were thus formed of a sprinkling of cabins, the entire group being fenced in by a palisade of logs for protection against marauding Indians and wild animals.

The colonists also built blockhouses for added protection. The blockhouse was an odd-looking structure. The upper story overhung the lower, and at regular spaces loopholes were cut into the logs. Through these openings the settlers could protect themselves by shooting at attacking parties.

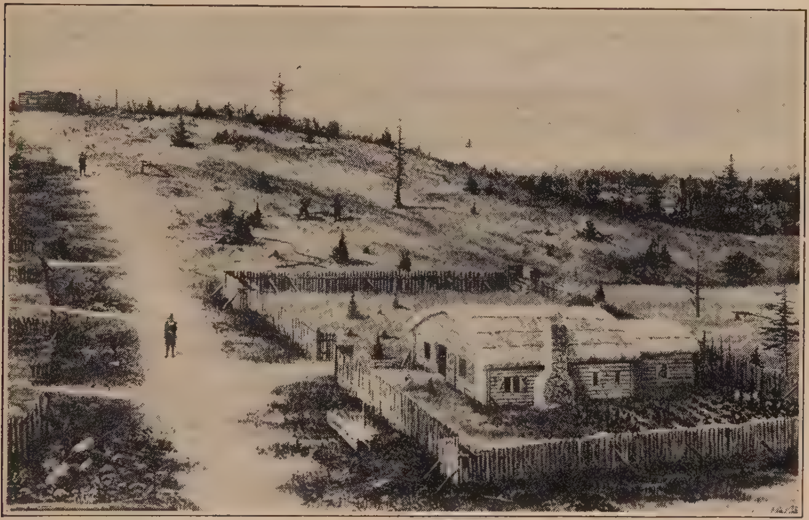

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Fig. 69. After the colonies became established, log houses were built from rough timber. Palisades protected the settlers from surprise attacks by Indians

I. LIFE IN THE NORTHERN COLONIES

Cottage Homes were soon built by the New England Colonists

Although the first colonists were living far from England, they did not forget that they were Englishmen. They longed to make their homes in the new land like those which they had left in England. This became possible as their numbers increased, as the danger of attacks from Indians and wild animals grew less, and as their farms became larger and their living easier. Gradually frame cottage homes replaced the log cabins.

Until nearly 1700 most New England homes were one-room, two-room, or three-room cottages. There was no cellar. A narrow ladder, which later became a staircase, led to the sleeping loft above. For many years the roofs were of thatch like those of English cottages. The chimneys were of massive logs plastered with clay or with a combination of reeds and mortar. Small wonder that fires were frequent in such houses!

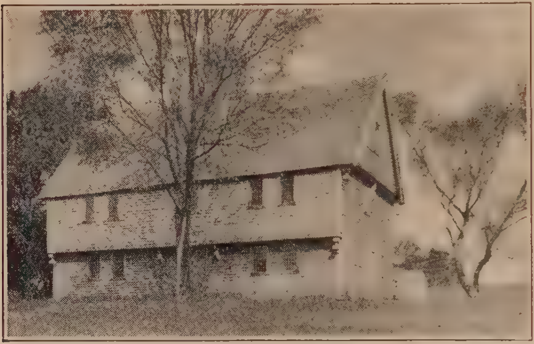

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FIG. 70. Frame houses soon replaced the log cabins which had been built

Figure 71 will help you in understanding how the first floor of the houses of our New England forefathers was planned. It will be noticed that the chimney opened into the two rooms. On both sides of the chimney open fires warmed the rooms. The outside door, whose hinges, locks, and knocker were of heavy wrought iron, opened on the tiny vestibule. To right and left of the entry smaller doors led into the kitchen and into the other room.

In the kitchen the fireplace was very wide with an oven at one end. Figure 72 illustrates what a large number of pots, pans, kettles, forks, and other cooking utensils the colonial lady of the house kept hanging about her fireplace. If there was a fireplace in the sleeping loft, oftentimes three fires blazed at once in this kind of house. Long, heavy, hardwood logs crackled continually in all three fireplaces during cold weather. Yet Cotton Mather, one of the leading Puritan ministers, tells us:

> But so extremely cold was the weather, that in a warm room, on a great Fire, the juices forced out at the End of short Billets of Wood, by the Heat of the Flames, on which they were laid, yet froze into Ice at their coming out. . . . 'Tis dreadful cold, my Ink-glass in my Standish is froze and splitt, in my very stove.

As for furniture, the more well-to-do colonists brought from England what they could. English cottages were not lavishly furnished, but there were great chests for household linen and clothing. There were a few chairs and stools and a table or two, and in a warm spot near the fireplace or the oven often stood a plain board cradle. Almost every home had a spinning wheel.

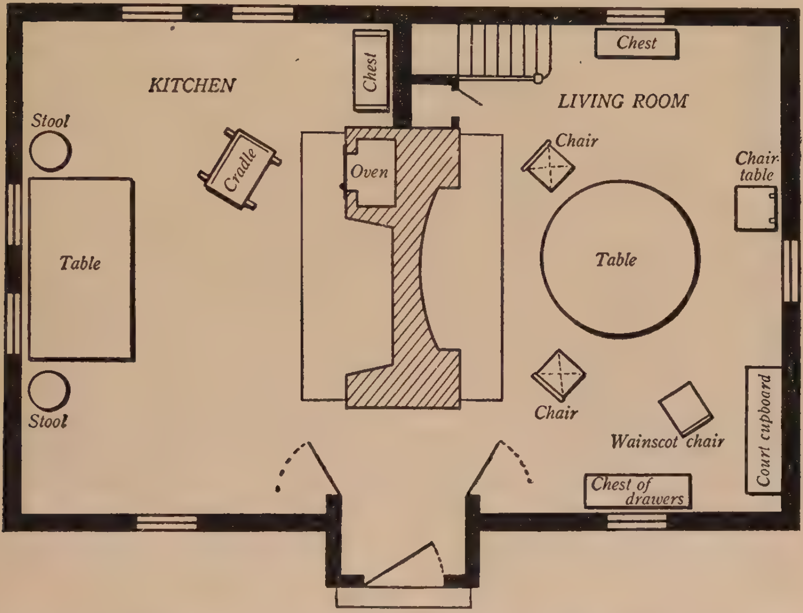
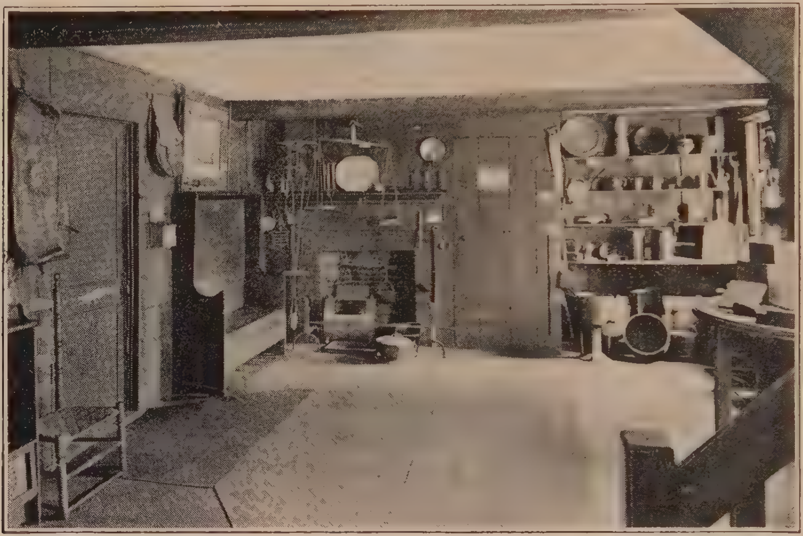

KITCHEN
Chest
Chest
LIVING ROOM
Stool
Cradle
Oven
Chair
Chair-table
Table
Table
Stool
Chair
Wainscot chair
Court cupboard
Chest of drawers

FIG. 71. The general plan of colonial houses in New England after 1630. Notice that the fireplace opens into both rooms

Such were the houses of the more prosperous settlers in the earliest days in America. By 1670, however, most of the log houses with their dangerous wooden chimneys had been replaced by two-storied clapboarded dwellings. The chimneys were much more substantial and safe. The second story in imitation of English cottages was frequently built jutting out over the first. Handmade shingles replaced crude thatch for roofing, and rough puncheons were laid down for flooring.

The New England colonist built his village, too, much like the villages in England. In the center was the old grazing ground, the "common" ground, which became the village green, or the village common. At one end was the white-spired meetinghouse, the social center as well as the religious center of the village. Clustered around the common were the houses of the villagers, set close together for protection and for sociability. Behind the houses stretched the fields that were under cultivation.



© Lexington Historical Society

FIG. 72. Kitchen of the Hancock-Clarke house, Lexington, Massachusetts, built in 1698. The fireplace in this kitchen is not so large as was often built. Notice the cooking and serving utensils hanging on the walls or leaning against the shelves. The long bench, called a settle, was usually placed close to the fire

As more immigrants came from England in the succeeding years, they sometimes settled in the established villages. Frequently, however, they started a new village near an old one, with a new common, or village green, a meetinghouse, and later a school building. Those near Boston became enterprising towns.

WHAT DID THE FIRST COLONISTS DO FOR A LIVING?

How food was produced

How differently agriculture was carried on in the colonies from the way it is now! Not by great agricultural machines on the thousand-acre farms of Iowa, the Dakotas, or Indiana! Not on great cattle ranches extending over many square miles with millions of cattle!

Instead, only by wearisome grubbing of little plots of ground were the first New England colonists able to keep from starving. Implements were crude. Garden plots and grain fields alike were small. The New England soil was thin and sandy, and the climate was cold for at least six months of the year. The crops of corn were scanty and required much coaxing and nursing. Fruit and fresh vegetables grew only during the summer.

Human and animal muscles furnished the only source of power. At first dried corn was pounded into coarse meal in stone mortars, but later primitive hand mills replaced the mortars. Then, as the colony developed, windmills were built and the muscles of men were relieved by the small power obtained from the force of the wind.

The windmills were sources of great wonder and suspicion to the Indians. During all the unknown years before the coming of white men the Indians themselves had never used even crude machinery to relieve the drudgery of hand grinding. They feared the long arms and gnashing teeth of the primitive machine, for they suspected that an evil spirit with some mysterious power was harnessed there to break the corn into small pieces.

A few years later the labor of the colonists was still further lightened by the introduction of English grinding mills. Nearly always, however, the work of planting, cultivating, harvesting, and threshing the grain was done laboriously by hand.

Handicrafts sprang up and each settler's home was a hive of industry

Farming was not the only work which was slow and difficult. Every kind of work was done by hand, and there was much work to be done. Every colonial family lived within itself as much as possible. The people produced and prepared their own food. The women spun, wove, cut out, and sewed all the clothing. The men made many of the household furnishings and utensils.

The gardens and the farms supplied vegetables for the table. Corn and rye were grown for bread. There was also a little wheat, but that was a luxury. Sugar was made by "boiling down" the sap from the maple trees, an art that was learned from the

Indians. Sugar-making was always a festive occasion for the whole community. In addition to maple sugar, honey was used for sweetening. There was also a certain amount of cane sugar, which was shipped from the West Indies.

The winter's supply of meat was prepared every autumn, when a cow or an ox and some hogs were slaughtered. Some of the meat was "salted down," some cured in the chimney. Salt pork and dried beef played a large rôle in the family bill of fare during the winter.

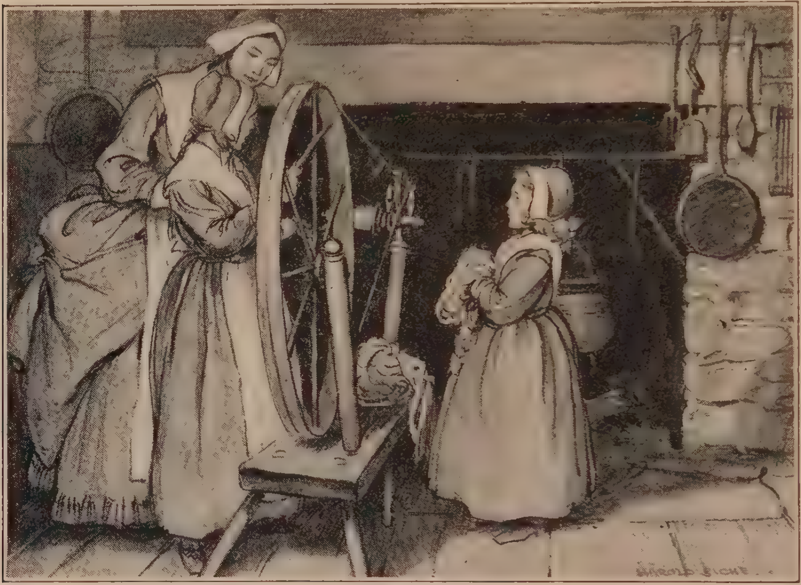


FIG. 73. A lesson on the spinning wheel in colonial days. Girls were taught at an early age to spin, knit, and sew

Everyone in the family worked, children as well as grown-ups. Just to keep alive required endless labor. To light the home, candles had to be made from tallow. Wood had to be cut and gathered —"sweet-scented hickory, snapping chestnut . . . laid in huge piles all alive with sap on the tall, gaunt andirons." Sheep had to be sheared and their wool washed, carded, spun into yarn, and woven into cloth. There were always blue woolen stockings to be knit in odd moments.

On long winter evenings as the family sat about the roaring fireplace, everyone was busy at a task. The goodman and his boys whittled out simple household utensils from wood — cheese hoops for the dairy, wooden hinges, door latches, bowls, spoons, forks. The mother and girls worked at knitting, spinning, or sewing. Everything was made by hand — the gowns of the girls and women, of rough homespun; the men's suits, of soft, pliable buckskin. Life was an endless round of tasks waiting to be done.

Specialization of labor soon developed in the colonies

By 1640, according to careful estimates, there were no less than 25,000 people in the English colonies. Naturally some of the settlers had special skill at particular handicrafts. Even in the first shiploads of immigrants there were shoemakers, spinners, cabinet-makers, ironmasters, wheelwrights, carpenters, and shipbuilders.

As the colonies became stronger they grew to depend less upon English imports. Every community had a hatter, who made hats to order, "usually in exchange for the skins of foxes, rabbits, muskrats, and other chance peltry." Every town of any size had a tanner, who dressed the skins of animals. Many times there was a special "clothier," who prepared cloth which had been woven in the homes of the people. There was a community butcher, who either went from house to house to slaughter cattle and hogs or conducted a general community slaughterhouse.

A PRIMITIVE IRON INDUSTRY GREW UP

Iron was most valuable in the early settlements. The very life of the people depended upon it. They needed it for their flintlock guns, for ax blades with which to hew timber, and for saws to make boards and furnishings from the logs.

So from the very first the colonists searched for iron. In 1629 ore was found along the banks of the Saugus River, near Lynn, Massachusetts. In 1643 John Winthrop, Jr., crossed the sea to America with workmen and capital enough to start an ironworks. A foundry was set up, probably the first in America. Soon villages grew about it and the workmen named one of them Hammersmith, for the village in England from which they had come.

Five years later Governor Winthrop of the Massachusetts colony wrote to his son, who had returned to England, that the iron furnace was producing about eight tons of iron every week; and he added, "The bar iron is as good as Spanish."

During the next ten years iron furnaces were set up at various places in New England. In Pennsylvania also large quantities of ore were found, and in each of the other colonies some was discovered. Before 1700 every colony had its little iron industry.

The Colonists early began the Development of a Great Fishing Industry

More than a century before the Jamestown settlement English and French fishing vessels had been plying the banks between Newfoundland and Ireland. It was a region rich in fish. So abundant was the sea life that explorers actually complained that they were "pestered with cod."

In the Northern colonies, especially, the fish of the rivers and sea were a very important source of food and of wealth. Not only could they be eaten, but they might also be sold abroad. For hundreds of years peasants throughout Europe had eaten dried cod. So before many years had passed a valuable trade in fish grew up between the colonies and European countries. By 1633 Dorchester and Marblehead in Massachusetts had established fisheries.

The industry proved profitable and popular. In the spring there were enormous catches of cod. In the summer mullet, sturgeon, herring, and many other fish rewarded the trips of the little colonial smacks. One old record states that in 1640 New England fishers shipped to European ports 300,000 dried cod. In 1672 a writer named over 200 varieties of fish caught in the waters near New England.

With the Fishing Industry grew up a Prosperous Shipbuilding and Lumbering Industry

Along with the abundance of fish, which made possible such a large industry, there were the materials for two other industries — lumbering and the building of ships.

The forests of New England grew close to the sea, and out of the timber of these forests the ships were built. The tall, straight pines furnished excellent masts — masts which could be used in the colonies and were greatly needed in England, where the forests had nearly disappeared. These masts increased in value until by 1750 a mast three feet in diameter at the base was worth several thousand dollars.

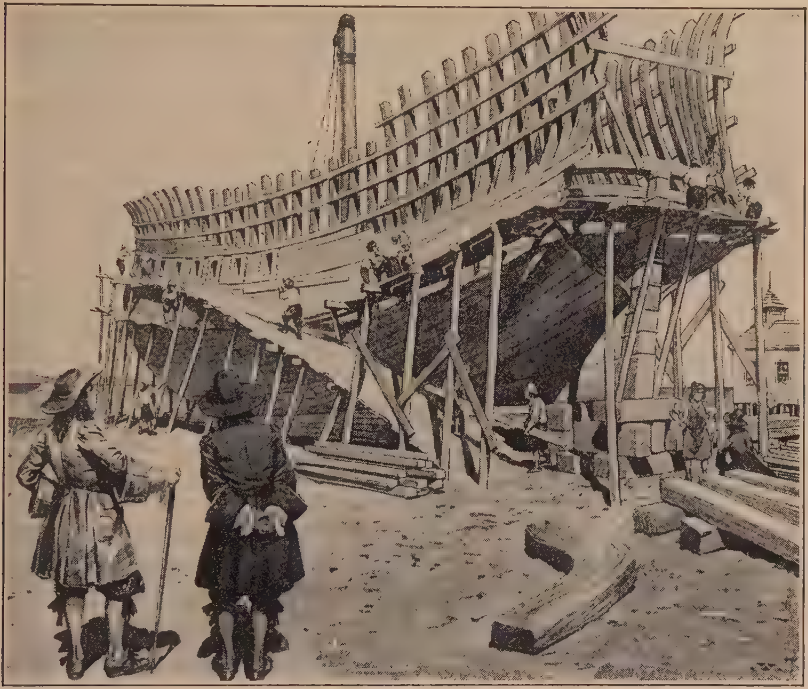


FIG. 74. Building a ship in early colonial New England. With great amounts of timber growing close to the sea, it was natural that a shipbuilding industry should develop there

The more well-to-do settlers of New England almost at once invested in the building of small vessels. Indeed, even before the Pilgrims and Puritans settled in Massachusetts, a short-lived colony at the mouth of the Kennebec River launched the *Virginia*, a vessel of 30 tons. This was in 1607, and in that year the *Virginia* made a successful voyage across the Atlantic Ocean.

In 1631 Governor John Winthrop of Massachusetts launched his boat, *The Blessing of the Bay*. He employed a captain and sailors to trade up and down the coast of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, even opening friendly relations with the Dutch colonists on Manhattan Island.

In 1628 there was a sawmill built on the site of the present Dorchester, Massachusetts. This was the first in America and was the basis of a large shipbuilding industry which developed later.

In addition to the demand for lumber to be sold to the shipbuilding companies of England, there was much need for wood in Europe. Even firewood was scarce and expensive. So from the very first years lumber was shipped to Europe, and the lumbering industry developed.

The pioneer settlers had much more wood than they could use. It was so plentiful as to be almost a nuisance to the new settler. But in cutting down the trees to provide a clearing for their homes and villages, the colonists were also gathering materials which were much needed in Europe, for planks cut from walnut trees could be used for tables and cupboards, while those from cedar and cypress trees could be made into chests and household cabinets or could provide the interior finish for houses. These were cheaply transported in sailing vessels to England, where they sold for large prices.

"But," you ask, "how could these Pilgrims and Puritans, struggling to get a living, gather enough money to build and equip ships, to pay wages, and provide for other expenses?" Some of it was furnished by well-to-do men like Governor Winthrop of Massachusetts. By 1675 there were wealthy shipping merchants like Philip English. He was reported to own 21 ocean-going vessels, which traded with Europe and Africa.

The building of many of these ships, however, was a coöperative affair. Carpenters, riggers, ironworkers, calkers — all contributed labor for a share of the ownership of the vessel. Wealthy merchants in the community became part owners by supplying money for wages, and stores of food, and the like. The officers and the sailors were also included in the partnership. Frequently they were permitted to share in the profit from the sales of cargo. Sometimes they were given space on the boat to ship their own commodities.

A profitable business this shipbuilding and shipping proved to be! Most of the partners became fairly prosperous, and one captain earned actually more than $25,000 a year on his vessel, a ship of only about 80 tons. Almost every inlet, bay, or river, from Maine to Massachusetts, had its shipyard.

Many an enterprising Jack-of-all-trades raised his own food in his garden and on his little farm, did a little fishing on the side during the warmer months of the year, and in the winter months accumulated dollars by pegging together a sloop or a brig. Many of these boats were no longer from end to end than the lifeboats on a great modern ocean liner, yet thousands of adventurous and thrifty American seamen crossed the rough Atlantic in them.

So throughout the early years of settlement, trade in fish, furs, and other articles grew along the Atlantic coast. In this trade the Massachusetts Bay seamen of Boston and Salem were leaders. Not long did they content themselves with trading along the coast, however. As they became more skilled they ventured farther and farther from the mainland, and not many years passed before a profitable trade was being carried on between the New England colonies and the West Indies islands, the chief ports of Europe, and the coasts of Africa.

During the spring freshets these fishermen would launch their boats loaded with rum for the African coast, with fish for the Canary Islands, or with tar, hemp, and long straight masts for England. Sometimes at the end of the voyage they would sell both ship and cargo and sign up as sailors for the return voyage. Often these traders returned with their pockets well lined with gold.

THE "TRIANGULAR TRADE" GREW UP BETWEEN NEW ENGLAND, AFRICA, AND THE WEST INDIES

One of the most profitable trade routes was the "triangular voyage," over which was carried the famous rum-molasses-slave trade. The good New England captain would load his hold with hogsheads of rum and set sail for the African coast. As likely as not he had instructions from the shipowners, as one letter of the 1600's tells us, to "put plenty of water in ye rum and use short measure as much as possible."

In Africa the captain traded the rum for human slaves — black men who had been conquered by enemy tribes and brought by African chieftains to the seaports where Europeans and Americans traded. They were as valuable to Europeans as African ivory and came to be called "black ivory."

The captain of the New England vessel then packed his human merchandise into the hold like cattle. Frequently these people were of less importance to him than the casks of rum. The hold was dark, filthy, and foul-smelling; the water supply was scanty; and many times the slaves were not given enough food. Disease broke out among them, sometimes wiping out the entire cargo. That was bad for profits.

Once loaded, the ship set sail either for the West Indies or for the southern American colonies. Those of the miserable "cargo" who survived the horrors of the terrible crossing, were traded for molasses. The molasses was then carried back to New England, where it was made into rum. Thus was the triangle completed.

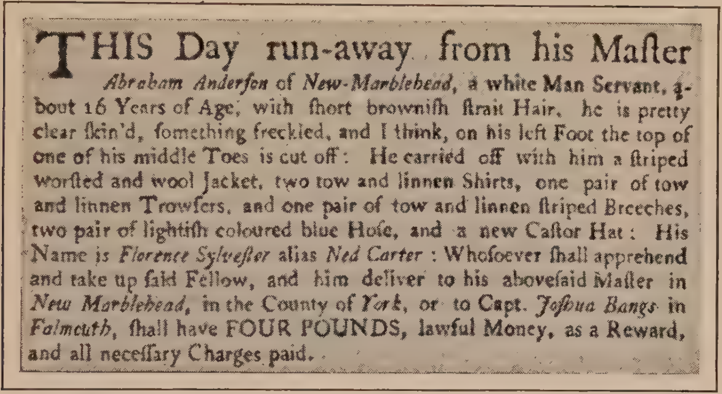
So through the 1600's and 1700's shipbuilding and seafaring prospered. Hundreds of Northern colonists became wealthy. Thousands of common sailors laid by little fortunes. As trade grew merchants, shippers, and sailors spent part of their profits on better living. Their homes became more substantial, and community buildings of stone and brick replaced the wooden structures. Every community could boast its little group of men of fortune. The uncouth wilderness was slowly changing to "civilization."

By 1700 more than 1000 ships of New England construction were registered. Salem, Boston, New Bedford, and other Northern shipping ports were becoming known around the world.

WHO DID THE WORK IN THE NORTHERN COLONIES?

Work was constantly in the minds of the early colonists. There were always trees to be cut, stumps to be uprooted, bowlders and stones to be dug from the soil. The land once cleared of trees, there were plowing and spring sowing to be done. There was the back-breaking labor of putting up houses, building ships, and making implements. For the women there were spinning and weaving and the drudgery of housework.

Throughout the 1600's, both on farms and in villages, most people worked for themselves. The pioneer householder, his wife, and their numerous children were Jacks-of-all-trades. One Joshua Hempstead, for example, was a farmer, carpenter, cobbler, shipwright, housebuilder, and maker of coffins. He also held various official positions in the town. At various times he was treasurer, assessor, surveyor of highways, deputy sheriff, coroner, justice of the peace, and judge in one of the courts. He was also a lawyer and an officer of the church. He was but one of many busy men.



THIS Day run-away from his Maſter *Abraham Anderſon* of *New-Marblehead*, a white Man Servant, about 16 Years of Age, with ſhort browniſh ſtrait Hair, he is pretty clear ſkin'd, ſomething freckled, and I think, on his left Foot the top of one of his middle Toes is cut off: He carried off with him a ſtriped worſted and wool Jacket, two tow and linnen Shirts, one pair of tow and linnen Trowſers, and one pair of tow and linnen ſtriped Breeches, two pair of lightiſh coloured blue Hoſe, and a new Caſtor Hat: His Name is *Florence Sylveſter* alias *Ned Carter*: Whoſoever ſhall apprehend and take up ſaid Fellow, and him deliver to his aboveſaid Maſter in *New Marblehead*, in the County of *York*, or to Capt. *Joſhua Bangs* in *Falmouth*, ſhall have FOUR POUNDS, lawful Money, as a Reward, and all neceſſary Charges paid.

FIG. 75. This advertisement for a runaway servant has been copied from an old newspaper printed in the Massachusetts colony. Notice the age of the servant. (Courtesy of the Massachusetts Historical Society)

The colonists could seldom hire other men to work for them, for all were equally busy with their own tasks. Everyone was working.

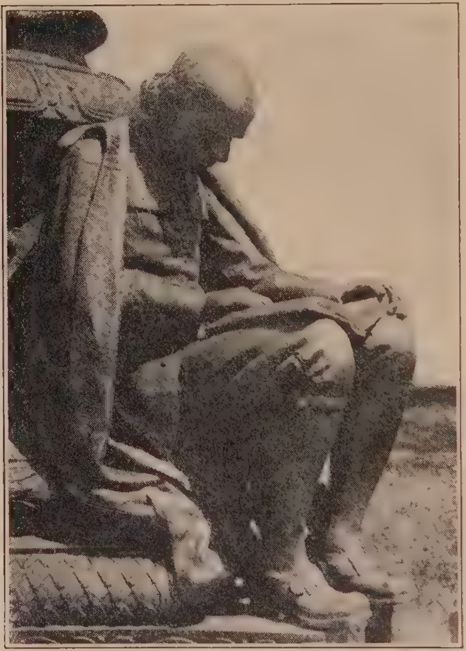
The great need in New England was for skilled labor — carpenters who could build houses and make furniture, shipwrights with a high degree of skill in designing and constructing ocean-going vessels, ironworkers who knew the trade of the blacksmith, shoemakers, weavers, and bricklayers. Years were required to learn these trades, and in the colonies there were very few persons who could be employed in them.

So the New England colonies were forced to bring apprentices, and other kinds of "bound labor" from England. Apprentices were youths whose services were sold for a term of years to some skilled workman. For the service rendered by the apprentice, the master fed and clothed the boy and taught him his trade.

Indentured servants were also brought from England, although not in such large numbers as to Virginia. Lastly, there were those who had been convicts in England who did the disagreeable tasks. Some had committed serious crimes, others less serious ones. Those who were industrious remained in the colonies after their time was up and often became respected citizens in the communities. Many of the criminal class, however, drifted back into their old calling, either in the colonies or on their return to England.

The Strict Ways of Living of the New England Puritans

Thus we see that the Puritans lived a severe, hard-working life. Practically all their waking hours were devoted to work. Naturally, therefore, the people had little time for merriment or meditation. They were by habit a moral and religious people. From the very first they regulated their lives and the lives of their neighbors by very strict rules and regulations. Any breach of these laws was severely punished.



© Keystone View Co.

Fig. 76. A Puritan father and elder. (From the sculpture by Cyrus Dallin)

One day alone was allowed for rest from the week of toil. On Sunday the Puritan was required to rest. He could not ride or walk through autumn woods on a warm Indian-summer afternoon. He and his children could not scurry into bypaths, looking for hickory nuts or grapes or berries. They must not whistle or read any books but the Bible or other religious works. They must hold no friendly gossip with neighbors in the streets lest they and their friends be arrested. Puritan boys and girls knew no such Sunday-afternoon fun as our boys and girls enjoy. The elders of the 1600's would have looked upon those pleasures with horror and would have regarded them as "breaking the Sabbath."

On Sunday citizens were forbidden to fish, shoot, sail, row, or ride for pleasure. Such frivolities as dancing or playing games were regarded as the worst offenses against the Lord's Day. One luckless maidservant was threatened with banishment from the Plymouth colony for the terrible offense of smiling in church!

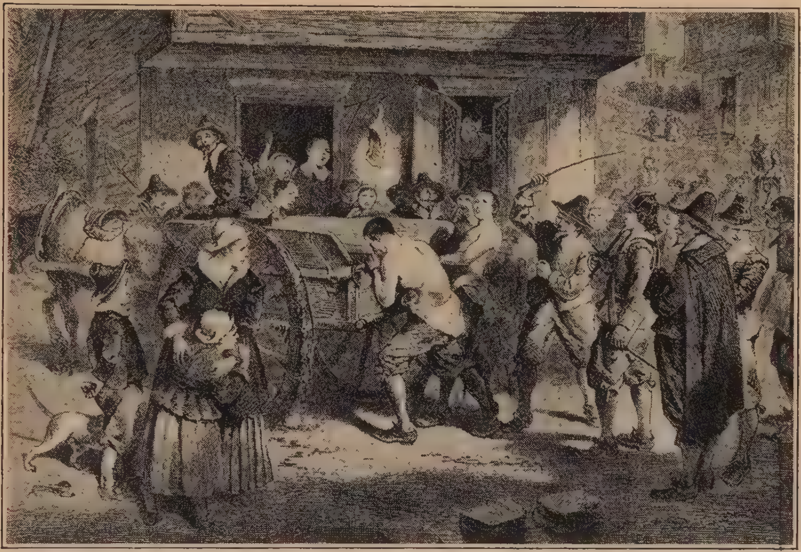


FIG. 77. Punishments were public affairs in the Puritan settlements. Offenders were sometimes tied to the tail of a cart and scourged as the cart was drawn through town. (From Crafts, *Pioneers in the Settlement of America*, 1877)

On Sunday morning children sat still for three hours or more listening to the minister, who preached a sermon which they could not understand. Fidgeting in the uncomfortable seats was severely punished.

The laws and penalties imposed for the most trifling offenses seem to us very severe indeed. A writer in 1686 says of them:

> Their laws for reformation of manners are very severe. . . . For being drunk, they either whip or impose a fine of five shillings. . . . For cursing and swearing, they bore through the tongue with a hot iron.

. . . For kissing a woman in the street, though but in way of civil salute, whipping or a fine. . . . Scolds they gag and set them at their own doors, for certain hours together, for all comers and goers to gaze at. . . . Stealing is punished with restoring fourfold, if they are able; if not they are sold for some years, and so are poor debtors.

For more serious offenses, ears, noses, and arms were cut off, and bodies were branded with hot irons. Gossips or talebearers were ducked in the river. Tramps and all those who were lazy or unwilling to work were compelled to sit for days in the street with neck, arms, and legs inclosed in the "stocks." They were then sent away from the community, for in the eyes of these early Puritans unwillingness to work was a crime indeed.

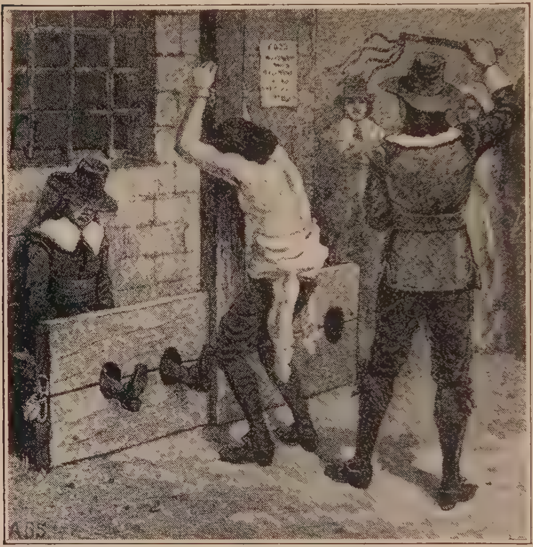


Fig. 78. The stocks were used to punish smaller offenses. Public whippings were given to punish those offenses which the Puritan considered serious ones. (From Drake, *A Book of New England Legends and Folk Lore*, 1884)

Great publicity was given to the punishment of all crimes, as the whipping posts and the stocks were in the center of the town, usually near the market place or the common. Here none could fail to see the disgrace of one of the group. Criminals were forced to attend church for hours and to hear themselves denounced by the minister. If they repeated their offenses, more severe punishments were given them next time.

Many, perhaps most, people believed in witches and witchcraft. College graduates and children alike were superstitious. In certain communities the people lived in terror of witches, and harmless old women were hanged for even such faults as talking to themselves.

People in the early New England colonies were expected to dress quietly in somber colors. Laws were passed in the first years to forbid the use of lace ruffles or gay colors. Such "frivolities" as the following were forbidden by law: "the wearing of silver or gold brocade or girdles, hatbands, belts, muffs, beaver hats." Long hair was considered a vanity. The true Puritan wore his hair cropped off. Because of that the Church of England people referred to Cromwell and his followers as Roundheads.

Later, as the wealth of the colonists increased, vanity in clothing reappeared. The ban was lifted and the stern Puritans decked themselves out in gold braids, lace ruffs, feathered hats, and all the adornments which fine English gentlemen of the time were wearing.

The whole life of the early Puritan colonists centered about their religion. The tiniest toddlers recited Bible texts. The Reverend John Cotton expressed in his journal his fear of the effects of childlike play upon his ten-year-old son! "What shall be done for the raising of Sammy's mind above the debasing Meannesses of Play?"

Bills of lading, which merchants made out for their goods, were phrased in devout language. Consider this one sent with a shipment by Philip English: "Twenty hogshead of salt shipped by the Grace of God in the good sloop called the *Mayflower* . . . and by God's Grace bound to Virginia or Maryland."

The ministers were the leaders of the community; one might say, indeed, they were its rulers. They were stern, courageous men, some of whom had been banished from their English parishes because of the sincerity of their Puritan beliefs. Many of them had education and good breeding.

These men influenced every phase of life in the Puritan settlements. They succeeded in having very severe laws passed, and their ideas determined public opinion on every subject. In order to train ministers who might follow in their footsteps, they helped to found colleges like Harvard and Yale.

Did the Puritans allow themselves no amusements?

In spite of its severity the Puritan life was not all dreary and commonplace. It may seem narrow and empty to us, yet it was full of a spirit of kindliness and helpfulness to one's neighbors. When a task required many hands the neighbors in the little New England communities gladly lent their aid. Cleaning or quilting were community affairs for the women. Pulling stumps, "raising" a new house, and husking corn were festive occasions for everyone.

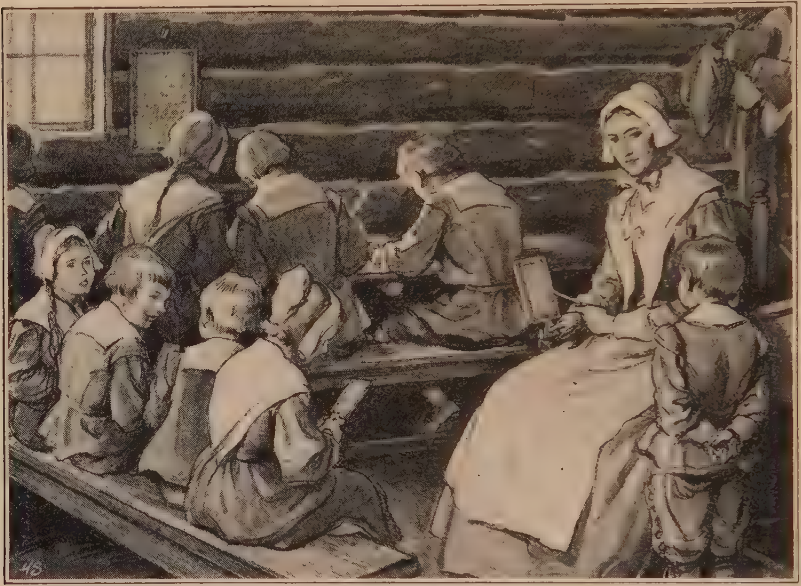


FIG. 79. Compare your own schoolroom with the colonial schoolroom. What comforts do you find in your school that the colonial children lacked?

Perhaps a new school or other community building was being built; perhaps it was a neighbor's new house or barn; in any event, the new structure must be "christened" when the ridgepole was put in place. That was a ceremony indeed! A bottle of good, stout rum was broken on the ridgepole. If a name was to be given the house the village poet had verses appropriate to the occasion. Sitting astride the topmost beam one poet sang:

"Here's a mighty fine frame
Which deserves a good name,
Say, what shall we call it?
The timbers all straight
And was hewed first rate,
The frame is well put together.
It is a good frame
That deserves a good name:
Say! What shall we name it?"[1]

Once the house was raised or the stumps pulled, the women joined the men and simple games were played amid great merriment. The best refreshments the host and hostess could serve always ended the festivity. As the neighbors sat around the open fire, shelling nuts and chatting, good cheer made merry men even of Puritans for the moment.

Thus the round of hard work and strict, religious living produced stern but friendly men and women.

GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND LIFE IN THE FIRST PURITAN SETTLEMENTS

Had these Puritans always been so sober and severe? Had their lives been as dull and hard-working in England? Or was a part of their harsh mode of living brought about by the continent of North America? Did the "geography" of early New England shape them?

No doubt it did to some extent. The *climate* and the soil made life fairly severe. Men had to work harder in America than in England to raise food, to clothe themselves warmly enough, to heat their houses, and to make them weather-tight and substantial. The cold winters taught the Puritans to be thrifty of their small stores of food lest spring find them hungry. The people learned to labor hard and save food in spring, summer, and autumn, so that there might always be enough to feed the family during the six months of winter. Naturally, habits of thrift developed.

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[1] Alice Morse Earle, *Home Life in Colonial Days*. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers. New York, 1899.

The sterile, stony soil of New England did not lend itself well to cultivation. The settlers were constantly removing stones from their farms. It was no easy task to till this unfruitful earth; so industry as well as thrift became second nature.

To be sure the climate and the soil were not entirely responsible for making the Puritans think and feel as they did. For many generations their ancestors in England had found life hard, so that habits of thrift and industry had long been developed in them.

Then, too, it was not until the reign of Queen Elizabeth (about 1600) that beds, rugs, chimneys, bed linen, or even underclothing had come into use in England. The homes of even the nobles were not luxurious, and the huts of the peasants were decidedly uncomfortable. Men had not had time to accustom themselves to better conditions before they landed in the bleak wilderness of the Northern colonies.

"GEOGRAPHY" ALSO DETERMINED THE LOCATION OF THE FIRST COLONIES NEAR WATERWAYS

We have seen that for many years the first settlements hugged the Atlantic coast and the river courses. The coast line of North America, with its deep indentations at many river mouths, was an exceptionally fine one for settlement. Inlets, sounds, or bays formed harbors capable of protecting large fleets of vessels. These harbors, scattered all along the coast, were natural ports for ocean trade with Europe. Here towns were sure to grow.

Notice how the first colonies clung to waterways, harbors, and protected bays. There was one colony on Massachusetts Bay and one on Narragansett Bay. The Connecticut colony was at the mouth of the Fresh (Connecticut) River, and the Dutch colony was located along Long Island Sound, New York Harbor, and the Hudson River. The Quakers and others settled along the Delaware River and Bay.

In the South the plantations were also laid along the river banks. There was a large group of settlements around Chesapeake Bay and the Virginia rivers. The planters built their own wharves, where tobacco and other produce might be loaded for shipping.

In 1665 the colonist who would venture more than ten miles from one of the waterways was rash, indeed. Even in 1700, with the founding of the Carolina colonies, settlement still clung to the waterways. Charleston and Albemarle Sound attracted the first comers. Older settlers by that time had begun to pioneer farther west, making homes deeper in the wilderness, but they still lived on the river banks because these waterways afforded easy means of transportation to and from the eastern seaboard colonies. Rafts, rowboats, and canoes were being used between the frontier settlements and the harbor towns to transport goods and people. As yet there were few roads, and, of course, there were no railroads.

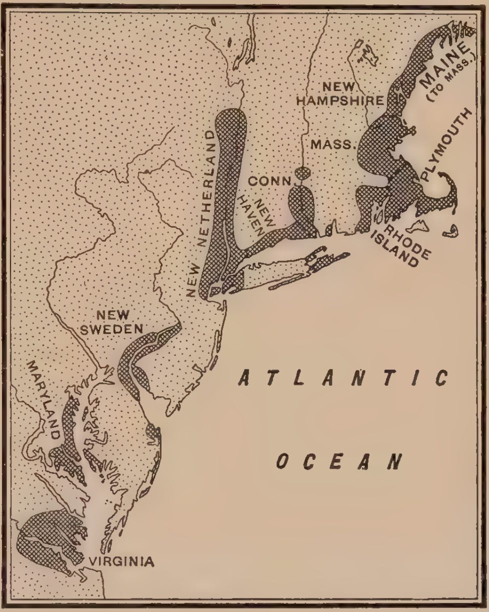

FIG. 80. Settled area in 1652. Notice that these early settlements hugged the coast line and rivers

Thus we see that waterways were very important in determining the location of the first communities.

II. HOW THE SOUTHERN COLONIES LIVED

THE "GEOGRAPHY" OF THE SOUTHERN COLONIES WAS DIFFERENT FROM THAT OF NEW ENGLAND

We have seen that the severe climate, the meager soil and natural resources, helped the strict, highly religious, thrifty, and industrious Puritan to develop still more those very qualities in himself. What happened at the other extreme of the coastal plain, in the Southern colonies? Was another kind of civilization growing up in the South?

New England and Virginia and the Carolinas represent the two extremes in the early settlement of America. Between them lay the middle colonies — New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland, and Delaware. In each section different types of people settled. In each the climate, soil, and natural resources were different. Eventually they helped to produce different kinds of "Americans."

What kind of civilization was growing up in the South? A very different kind from that in the North. Different in kind of people, different in ways of working, and different in ways of thinking and feeling about life.

Consider, first, the geographic differences. The climate of the South was very much warmer than that of Massachusetts. Virginia lay about 500 miles south of Boston. Naturally, the temperature was higher the year round. From time to time there might be frosts which would blight the fruit trees. Nevertheless, the growing season was longer and farming was not so tedious a task, for summer lasted at least six months, even in Virginia. Through the Carolinas and Georgia there were seven months of warm weather. The longer summers made certain crops profitable and easy to grow; for example, tobacco flourished in Virginia, cotton grew well in the Carolinas, and rice and sugar cane could be raised in Georgia.

Was there enough rainfall for the crops of the Southern colonists? Figure 187 shows that from 40 to 60 inches of rain falls throughout the year in Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia. In New England along the coast the rainfall is but little less. So we see that the colonists, who were struggling to get a living from the soil in the strange, wild new continent, were fortunate in settling along a coast where there was ample rainfall.

But the colonists of the South were not entirely happy about the soil. Much of the land of the region was full of sand, gravel, or clay, and when the rain fell it washed the top soil away.

With a heavy downpour of rain the water runs off such soil into the streams, carrying much of the nourishment with it. The ground is not able to soak up and store the moisture as fine loam does; so much of the top soil of the South is carried off with heavy rains. Some of it pulverizes in the wind and blows away. A writer in 1845 said: "It is a most singular soil, and when a gully once begins it seems to melt down, down, into a deep ditch whose sides are as straight and perpendicular as if cut by spade and line."[1]

Thus the chief difficulty in keeping a Southern farm was to prevent the top soil from washing away.

VIRGINIA SOIL RAISED ENORMOUS TOBACCO CROPS

At the time when Jamestown was first settled, "drinking smoke," as the Englishmen called the habit of smoking tobacco, was becoming fashionable in England. It is said that Sir Walter Raleigh "tooke a pipe of tobacco a little before he went to the scaffolde." Smoking was adopted with enthusiasm in Europe, and a pipe became as necessary to a smart gentleman's appearance as his sword. Fortunately for the Virginia farmers there was a constant demand in Europe for smoking tobacco.

Five years after the first landing at Jamestown, John Rolfe planted tobacco on a patch of ground to see if the white men could grow the plant as successfully as the Indians. His experiment was a great success. Although the Virginia soil would not grow rich crops of grain, it yielded this new crop of tobacco most generously.

Other people tried Rolfe's experiment, until within the next four years nearly all the Virginians were planting tobacco.

The first tobacco plantations were laid in narrow strips along the river banks. The vessels which were to carry the crop to England anchored in the stream near the sea. Hogsheads of tobacco were collected in small boats along the banks, carried to the ships, and loaded. As much as 20,000 pounds were sent from Virginia in 1619; 60,000 pounds in 1622; 500,000 pounds in 1627. So rapid was the growth of the tobacco industry of Virginia!

During the colonial days the region near Chesapeake Bay depended absolutely upon its tobacco crops, for it was almost the sole product and export of the colony. Tobacco molded

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[1] From *The Cultivator*, Albany, New York, n.s., III, 32; quoted by Ulrich B. Phillips, in his *Life and Labor in the Old South*, p. 8. Little, Brown & Company, Boston.

Virginian lives. It made fortunes. The ruling families of Maryland, Virginia, and the Carolinas were known as the "tobacco aristocracy." Of course tobacco attracted new colonists to Virginia from England.

Furthermore, tobacco made large plantations more practicable than small farms. In creating a demand for unskilled labor, it increased slavery in the South. English officials tried several times during the next century to get Virginia gentlemen to raise other products, but the profit in tobacco was so large and sure that their pleading was in vain.

The Reverend Andrew Burnaby, who traveled through the South (1760) 150 years after the landing at Jamestown, said of the Virginians:

> The Virginians . . . confine themselves almost entirely to the cultivation of tobacco; and if they have but enough of this to pay their merchants in London, and to provide for their pleasures, they are satisfied, and desire nothing more. Some few, indeed, have been rather more enterprising, and have endeavored to improve their estates by raising indigo, and other schemes; but whether it has been owing to the climate, to their inexperience in these matters, or their want of perseverance, I am unable to determine, but their success has not answered their expectations.[1]

THE GROWING OF RICE AND INDIGO IN THE CAROLINAS

It is said that in 1693 Thomas Smith, a North Carolina governor, received a handful of rice from a sea captain who had touched at Africa. Smith himself had been in Madagascar, and he had seen how rice would grow in a semitropical climate. So he planted the rice in his garden.

From the beginning Smith's experiment was successful. Later he distributed the seed to the colonists, and they began to raise very large crops. As you learned in *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World*, rice-growing requires many hands. Like tobacco in Virginia, then, it created a great demand for unskilled labor, and so increased slavery.

Indigo also flourished in the Carolinas. This plant was in

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[1] The Reverend Andrew Burnaby, *Travels through the Middle Settlements of North America in the Years 1759 and 1760*. Printed for T. Payne, at the News-Gate, London, 1798.

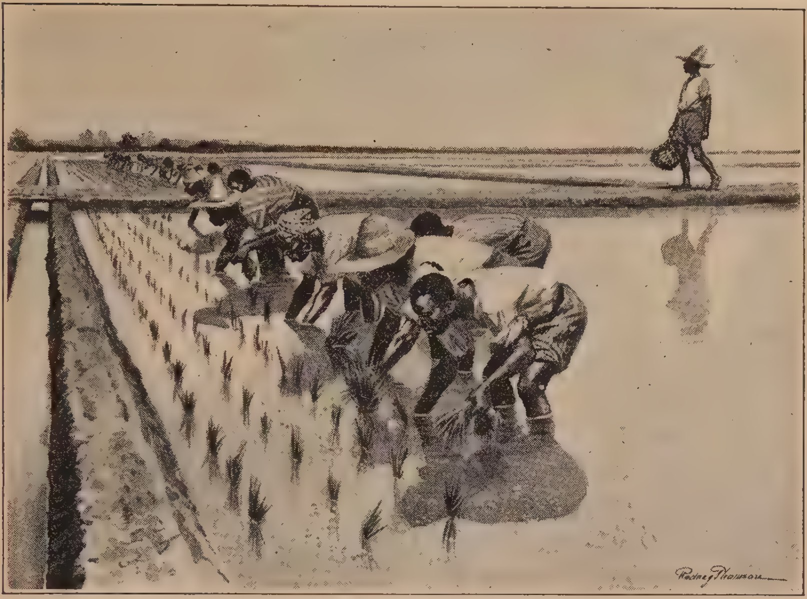

Fig. 81. In the Carolinas during the 1700's many plantation owners learned to grow rice. Here we see slaves planting the young rice sprouts

great demand throughout Europe for the manufacture of blue dye. Many planters discussed the probabilities of raising indigo for sale in England, but the wife of Charles Pinckney was one of the first people to plant it successfully. In a letter to her son, Charles, dated 1785, she writes of her experience:

> To the best of my recollection I first tried it in March, 1741 or 1742. It was destroyed (I think by a frost). The next time in April and it was cut down by a worm. I persevered to a third planting and succeeded, and when I informed my father that it bore seed and the seed ripened, he sent a man from the Island of Montserrat by the name of Cromwell who had been accustomed to making indigo there, and gave him high wages. . . . I observed him as carefully as I could, and informed Mr. Devereux, an old gentleman and a neighbor of ours, of the little knowledge I had gained and gave him notice when the indigo was to be beat; he saw and afterward improved upon it, notwithstanding the churliness of Cromwell, who wished to deceive him and throw in so large a quantity of lime water as to spoil the color.[1]

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[1] Reprinted by permission of the publishers, The Arthur H. Clark Company, from Phillips, *Plantation and Frontier Documents*.

Rice and indigo both proved to be profitable crops, but they could not replace tobacco, which reigned supreme for nearly 200 years from the time Jamestown was founded.

THE SIZE OF SOUTHERN PLANTATIONS COMPARED WITH NEW ENGLAND FARMS

The Atlantic coastal plain in Massachusetts, Maine, Rhode Island, and Connecticut is narrow. South of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, the plain widens and the mountains stand back 100 miles and more from the coast. In Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia, there are as many as 200 miles of plain before the Appalachians raise their barrier. Furthermore, the land is more fertile in the southern plain.

These geographic features helped to make Virginia and Carolina plantations larger than New England farms, since there was much more level land to be cultivated. In New England the farms varied in size from 15 or 20 to 60 or 70 acres. In the South they were much larger. One historian has worked out the average size of the farms in Virginia from a study of old records. Between 1634 and 1650 the average plantation was 446 acres; but from 1651 to 1700 it was 674 acres. Of course these figures represent only the size of the average farm. Some farms were as small as the New England holdings, while others were great plantations as large as 10,000 acres.

Since many of the plantations supported only a few people, the population of Virginia did not grow rapidly. About 100 years after the founding of Jamestown, according to official estimates, there were in Virginia south of the Rappahannock River "only 14,700 persons to make up the total of servants, slaves, wage-earners, professional men, and male minors over sixteen."[1] A few of these people were wealthy planters, the owners of great plantations. Some of them were poor farmers. A large number, of course, were slaves or indentured servants.

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[1] T. J. Wertenbaker, *The First Americans, 1607–1690*, p 32. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers. New York, 1927.

WHO DID THE WORK OF THE TOBACCO COLONIES?

In the earliest days in the Southern colonies, nearly everyone worked, for in no other way could men feed themselves. After some years had passed and tobacco-raising was adopted, the situation changed. To grow tobacco does not require great skill or training. It is not a craft, a trade; yet it does require strong arms, backs, and legs to work long hours in the sun.

Thus great numbers of unskilled laborers were needed in the South. Three types of laborers worked at tobacco-raising. First, there were the free yeomen, who owned their small plantations on which they worked with the aid of their families. Second, there were the white indentured servants, who worked practically as slaves for a term of years. Third, there were the African Negroes, who were slaves for life.

The use of African Negro slaves before 1700

As you read in Chapter IV, African Negroes were first sold as slaves in English America in the year 1619. For many years before that time, Dutch, Spanish, and Portuguese traders, plying their trade along the west coast of Africa, had sold black men in Europe and in South America. Once landed and sold, the black men proved to be very good servants. The trade was profitable, and Englishmen took it up. Long before 1600, therefore, people both in western Europe and South and Central America had become accustomed to the idea of buying and selling black men.

In fact, people had very different views about slavery, both black and white, from our views today. There were many white slaves in Europe. In Russia, for example, the majority of the white people were still regarded as private property. The peasants of western Europe had been and still were sold with land and other property. Even the famous Puritan leader, Oliver Cromwell, sold more than one shipload of white men (Irishmen) to the West Indian planters. We are told that his representatives carried on a steady trade with Virginia planters in which Irish children were sold as actual slaves. No one thought that these things were wrong. Queen Anne of England owned one fourth of the stock in the Royal Africa Company and encouraged the slave trade with New York and New Jersey. In the later 1600's and early 1700's the aristocratic families of England did not hesitate to buy stock in slave companies.

However, the number of Negro slaves in the English colonies grew very slowly until about 1700. Many people in Maryland and Virginia were opposed to buying and selling human beings. In Virginia, in 1650, it is estimated that there were not more than 300 Negroes to 15,000 whites. Twenty years later (1670), according to the Governor's estimate, there were 40,000 inhabitants, of whom 2000 were Negroes and 6000 white indentured servants. Thus 80 per cent of the colony were freemen owning land, 15 per cent were indentured servants, and only 5 per cent were Negroes.

As tobacco continued to yield large profits, however, the small landowners became more prosperous and the demand for labor increased. New England ships brought many Negroes into the colony from the "triangular voyage." After 1680 the planters realized that great profits could be made from the unpaid labors of their black property. Some men owned slaves to breed for the sale of the children. By 1700 that trade was flourishing. In that year Virginia had an estimated population of 70,000, of whom 20,000 were Negroes.

In the larger towns regular slave markets existed. There were "middlemen" who bought slaves in the market in lots. One by one they were resold to the planters in exchange for indigo, tobacco, or money. Healthy male slaves in 1712 were worth about $225 apiece, but it was not until cotton became king of the South, after 1800, that Negroes brought really high prices.

Some of the slaves were employed as household servants, others worked in the fields, and still others were taught skilled trades. Some of the owners of these workmen rented their laborers to other planters and business men.

MOST OF THE VIRGINIA PLANTERS WERE FREEMEN OWNING SMALL FARMS

The mass of the freemen who built Virginia were like those in New England — English citizens of small but independent means. Certainly four fifths of these freemen were farmers who cultivated their own plantations, holdings that averaged about 100 acres each.

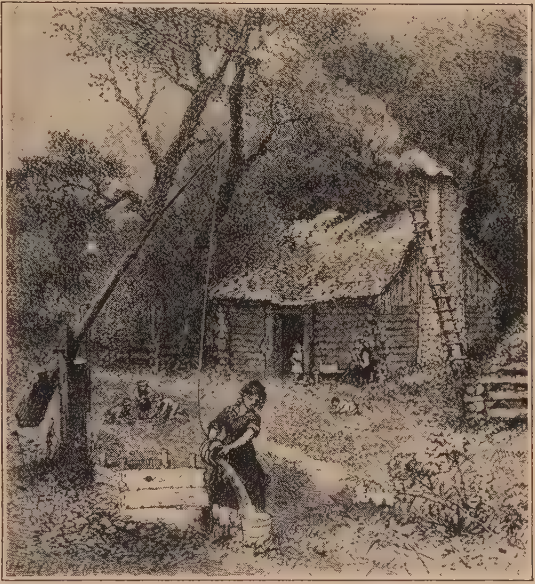

FIG. 82. On small farms like this one the men, women, and children of the family did all the work. There were no slaves or hired help. (From Coffin, *Old Times in the Colonies*, 1880)

We have but few records of the time, but those which we have indicate that there were almost no slaves or indentured servants on this type of farm. During the early days these colonists — men, women, and even children — worked hard, year in and year out, in order to wring a bare living from the soil. In many places, even after the early 1700's, the land was cultivated by "hoeing up the ground and throwing seed in it and harrowing it in."[1]

The life of the small planter was not much easier than that of the Massachusetts farmer. The goodwife spun yarn, wove homespun, cut and sewed the family garments. The homes were usually small, boarded houses, sparsely furnished. Only the more fortunate had beds and bolsters.

After the first few years, however, the gardens and forests yielded food more abundantly. Wild game was plentiful: ducks covered the waters near the settlements, and deer and turkeys roamed the woods. The planter's own truck garden produced Indian corn, potatoes, grains, asparagus, carrots, turnips, and parsnips. The orchard bore apples and pears. Berry patches yielded strawberries and raspberries.

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[1] T. J. Wertenbaker, *The First Americans, 1607–1690*, p. 38. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers. New York, 1927.

Thanks to the warmer climate and the better soil, living came to be somewhat easier than in New England. By 1700 the yeomen, or small farmers, were showing signs of prosperity. They enlarged their plantations as bit by bit they accumulated more property. These yeomen were the forefathers of the wealthy Southern families of the 1800's and of many of the western pioneers who pushed across the Appalachians to form the newer Southern states of our country.

In Each Southern Colony there were a Few Wealthy Aristocrats

A few of the emigrants to America were aristocrats of wealth, most of whom held large acreages of land which had been granted to them by kings or proprietors. These men were able to buy many indentured servants and Negro slaves to work their tobacco fields.

There was, for example, one Colonel William Fitzhugh, who emigrated from England in 1670. Sixteen years later he had a plantation of 1000 acres acquired by practicing law, by engaging in various commercial ventures, by holding a public office, and as middleman in the slave trade. He himself owned 29 slaves, a large herd of cattle, and an orchard of 2500 trees. Deep in the wilderness he held another estate of about 25,000 acres of land. A resident of Virginia describes the Colonel's property in 1686 as follows:

> The Colonel's accommodations were . . . so ample that . . . we were all supplied with beds, though we had indeed to double up. Colonel Fitzhugh showed us the largest hospitality. He had store of good wine and other things to drink, and a frolic ensued. He called in three fiddlers, a clown, a tight rope dancer and an acrobatic tumbler, and gave us all the divertisement one would wish. It was very cold but no one thought of going near the fire because they never put less than the trunk of a tree upon it and so the entire room was kept warm.[1]

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[1] From *A Frenchman in Virginia, being the Memoirs of a Huguenot Refugee in 1686*; quoted by Ulrich B. Phillips, in his *Life and Labor in the Old South*, pp. 27–28. Little, Brown & Company, Boston.

The wealthy colonists formed small communities among themselves. Each large plantation was, indeed, a village. The planter had a grinding mill to make flour for his plantation and for those of his neighbors. Working for wages or as indentured servants on the estate were a miller, a house carpenter or two, a blacksmith, a glazier, shoemakers, tailors, perhaps even a ship's carpenter. The land provided materials for almost everything — lumber, leather, wool, cotton, flax, and iron.

A description in 1649 of the estate of a certain Captain Samuel Matthews, who had come to Virginia a poor man, tells us:

> He hath a fine house and all things answerable to it; he sowes yearly store of Hempe and Flax, and causes it to be spun; he keeps Weavers, and hath a Tanhouse, causes Leather to be dressed, hath eight shoemakers employed in their trade, hath forty Negro servants, brings them up to Trades in his house: He yearly sowes abundance of Wheat, Barley, etc. The Wheat he selleth at four shillings the bushell, kills store of beeves, and sells them to victuall the ships when they come thither: hath abundance of Kine, a brave Dairy, Swine great store, and Poltery.[1]

"GEOGRAPHY" AGAIN! SOCIAL LIFE IN THE WARM, SOUTHERN COLONIES WAS VERY DIFFERENT FROM THAT IN NEW ENGLAND

We have seen how the land and the weather helped to shape the life of the Puritans in New England. In the South too it helped to determine how people lived, how they worked, and how they spent their free time, even how they felt and thought about life.

Many of the people of the South were from the same small villages, perhaps even from the same families as the New England settlers. Some of them had left England to be free from political troubles. For the most part, however, they were not Puritans, and their attitude toward religion was less serious. They did not frown upon sports or amusements, which the Puritans regarded with horror. In fact, their social life was often gay and brilliant. Note how the following description contrasts with what you know of a New England community of the same period.

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[1] T. J. Wertenbaker, *The First Americans, 1607–1690*, p. 45. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers. New York, 1927.

Hospitality on the great estates of the South became famous the world over. The wealthy planters entertained their guests lavishly. Separated as they were from other people, they liked to surround themselves with friends and relatives, and they often had large families of ten or twelve children.

Guests were eagerly welcomed into their homes, for a stranger bearing news of other plantations and other colonies was a relief from the monotony of life. Servants were sometimes posted at the gates to bring in any travelers who might be passing. Work was eagerly interrupted at a moment's notice for an exchange of jokes, anecdotes, and gossip with the newcomers. Conversation was lightened by long draughts of liquor.

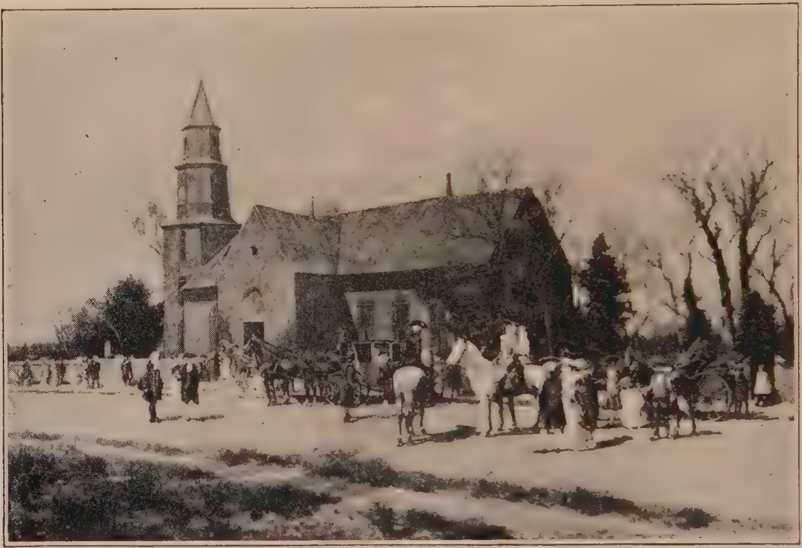


FIG. 83. In the Southern colonies on Sunday morning people came to church from many miles distant, riding on horseback or drawn in their coaches. Besides being a place in which to worship, the church was a place for friendly gathering and exchange of greetings. (From a painting by Wordsworth Thompson. Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art)

Among the wealthier families there was a constant round of entertainment. Two or three generations of relatives or hosts of friends might descend upon a household for a visit of weeks or even months. The larder and the cellar were always stocked for such emergencies. What an utterly different scene these occasions presented from New England gatherings! There were fewer thoughtful discussions of religion. There was much dancing and frolicking. The wealthy planter, his wife, and his family, freed of the drudgery of making a living, had more leisure time. Living farther from his wealthy neighbors than the New Englander, his recreation was found in social gatherings. Dancing was perhaps the most popular amusement. Imagine a ball in Virginia in the late 1600's.

Boys and girls, youths and maidens, stately planters and dignified matrons, bowed and curtsied in the popular minuet. Later when the fiddler played and sang melodies, everyone cast aside his dignity to whirl in a lively Virginia reel. Up and down the long, polished floor of the ballroom they pranced with much clapping of hands and laughter.

Tall, shining candelabra cast shadows on white shoulders rising from low-cut bodices. Full satin skirts rippled to the polished floor, which reflected their brilliant colors. Young gallants with long curls and tiny waxed mustaches swung the coat tails of their brocaded silk and velvet costumes. Dusky Negro coloring offered a sharp contrast to smoothly shaven, pink cheeks and delicate white fingers as the slaves slipped in and out, offering refreshments to the guests. The blistered little feet of the dancers kept an unending time to the music. And blistered they were, indeed, for the balls lasted sometimes for two or three days.

Pleasure-loving Virginians celebrated many occasions during the year: harvest festivals, the birthdays of the English royal family, Christmas, New Year's, St. Andrew's, Shrove Tuesday, and Easter. Fairs were held every year like the one which this advertisement describes:

> The fair is to be held three days and there will be horse-racing and a variety of diversions every day, and the following prizes to be contended for. . . . A saddle to be run for, a handsome bridle for the horse that comes in second and a good whip for the third. A pair of silver buckles to be run for, by men, from the College to the Capitol — a pair of shoes to him that comes in second, a pair of gloves to the third. A pair of pumps to be danced for by men. A handsome fire lock to be exercised for. A pig with his tail soaped to be run after and given to the person that catches him and lifts him off the ground by his tail.

Much wine, cider, and beer were consumed by the planters. Here is a well-known Southern rime:

Christmas comes but once a year:
Every man must have his sheer
Of apple cider, 'n' 'simmon beer.

Every man certainly had his "sheer" in those days. Persimmon beer was the favorite drink of those who could not afford good wines. The Virginia gentleman of those days spent much of his day in drinking, for with many slaves and servants he worked but little.

The lady of the house was not quite so idle as her lord. She probably demanded small services such as the brushing of hair, the lacing of shoes, and fanning on hot days. Still she had many tasks to oversee in her direction of the household; for example, she planned the making of clothing both for her family and for the servants and prepared simple remedies from herbs to administer to sick slaves.

Thus we have seen how climate, soil, and natural resources helped to bring about very different ways of living in the various colonies.

SUMMARY: UNTIL LONG AFTER 1700 THE COLONISTS, NORTH AND SOUTH, REGARDED THEMSELVES AS ENGLISHMEN

Throughout the first 150 years of American settlement, England was still the mother country. The English way of life was the real standard of correct living. English customs were models. English houses were the ideal of colonial builders. English clothing was the mode. Colonists who could afford to do so imported their wardrobes. English books were much sought. One Edward Howe wrote from England to John Winthrop in 1633 that he was sending some clothes to Winthrop's cousin. To Winthrop himself he sent a book catalogue and a copy of Captain James's account of his "latest discovery of the North West passage."

Thus, although many of the colonists had been born in America or had lived there for the greater part of their lives, in a sense they were still Englishmen. English problems of religion and politics still dominated their discussions, and they were still faithful subjects of the English King. In thought and action they regarded themselves as Englishmen.

YET SLOWLY THE COLONISTS WERE BECOMING "AMERICANIZED"

Whether he wished it or not, however, the wilderness was changing the English colonist. When he first arrived the wilderness mastered him. It made him live in an Indian wigwam or a log cabin instead of a fairly comfortable European home. He had to plant and eat Indian corn since he lacked the European grains in abundance. Almost at once he took over the crude, agricultural implements of the Indians. Instead of traveling in a wagon as he would have done in Europe, he paddled down rivers on a handmade raft or in a birch-bark canoe. The Englishman lived as the wilderness compelled him to live.

But slowly the colonist became master of the wilderness. In his struggle for mastery, however, the wilderness changed him without his knowing it. He became less and less a European and more and more an American. In Europe his house had been made of stone or brick, but in America there were no tools for shaping, cutting, and fitting large blocks of stone. Wood was very cheap. It grew almost at the back door of his rude shelter and could be worked into shape more quickly and easily than stone. So he used the wood.

Throughout the colonial days he tried to make the wooden dwellings resemble his English model as much as possible. But as years passed even his ideas changed, and he became content to build his house of the materials at hand in the manner best suited to the material.

Some of the colonists changed more rapidly than others. Others did not change at all. Their sons, grandsons, and great-grandsons were taught never to forget that they were still Englishmen living in an English colony.

As the history of the development of American civilization continues, you should be alert always to discover how European immigrants were changed by their new surroundings into thoroughgoing Americans.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

BARR, AMELIA E. The House on Cherry Street. Dodd, Mead and Company, New York, 1909. A novel of life in New York during the 1700's.

BURNABY, The REVEREND ANDREW. Travels through the Middle Settlements of North America in the Years 1759 and 1760. Printed for T. Payne, at the News-Gate, London, 1798. An Englishman's descriptions of the colonies.

EARLE, ALICE MORSE. Colonial Days in Old New York (new edition). Empire State Book Co., New York, 1926. How the jovial Dutch lived on the Hudson River.

EARLE, ALICE MORSE. Home Life in Colonial Days. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1898. Many descriptions and episodes of the homes of the people in the colonies.

EARLE, ALICE MORSE. The Sabbath in Puritan New England. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1891. An interesting account of the dull and gloomy New England Sunday.

HAWTHORNE, NATHANIEL. Grandfather's Chair.

HUMPHREY, GRACE. Women in American History. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, 1919. Interesting stories of famous American women from Pocahontas to Clara Barton.

LOGIE, A. E. (Editor). From Columbus to Lincoln. Lyons and Carnahan, Chicago, 1924. Letters and accounts of events from Columbus to Lincoln, written by eyewitnesses.

TAPPAN, E. M. Letters from Colonial Children. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1908.

UNIT III

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE RED MAN'S CONTINENT

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE RED MAN'S CONTINENT

The English colonists had other struggles than that of taming the wilderness. They faced a military struggle also, for another race and other European nations opposed them in their settlement of North America.

For no one knows how many centuries brown-skinned Indians had made their abode in the place we now call the United States. What was their attitude toward the settling of white men upon their shores? This is the problem to which we shall turn in Chapter VIII. In what spirit did the Indians and the Europeans receive each other? Did the white men **buy** *the Indians' land that they settled upon? Or did they ruthlessly* **conquer** *it as the Spaniards had done in Central and South America? How well did they understand each other — these two races that lacked a common language, that lived so differently? Was it not inevitable that misunderstandings would develop and murderous warfare ensue?*

Again ask yourself whether it was possible for two widely differing civilizations to live side by side in the same region. Consider also the ethical problem: Was it right for the more numerous Europeans to drive back the scattered tribes of Indians?

There was another phase to this struggle for the red man's continent, namely, the struggle between England and her European rivals for the control of the continent. To that struggle we shall turn in Chapter IX. Try to understand the sharp differences between the French and the English colonies: the difference in the amount of territory which each controlled, the difference in the number of people in the two groups of colonies, the difference in the way in which the two nations dealt with the Indians.

CHAPTER VIII

THE FIRST STRUGGLE OF THE WHITE MAN FOR THE RED MAN'S CONTINENT, 1607–1750

We turn now to another important factor in the settlement of America

Perhaps you are beginning to ask, "What were the Indians doing while the white men were settling the land from Massachusetts to Georgia?"

In the first years of settlement the Indians were perhaps the most important single factor in the life of the colonists. It was *their* continent upon which the Europeans had come to live. It was *their* land that they were taking. It was *their* hunting grounds on which they planted their corn and herded their cattle. It was *their* bays and inlets that sheltered their ships.

What did the red men think of this invasion of their world?

The Indians' First Impression of the White Men

At the first sight of the wings of white cloth on the gigantic canoes coming out of the sea the Indians were filled with wonder and fright. Gods, strange gods, they thought these men were!

When the Spanish conquistadors came to the mainland of South America, riding great long-legged animals, the Indians were equally astonished. They had never seen horses and of course had never ridden them. Surely such riders could be no less than white gods!

One passenger on the *Mayflower* told how the Indians regarded Miles Standish's exploring expedition:

> When they had marched about the space of a mile by the seaside, they espied 5 or 6 persons with a dog coming towards them, who were savages; but they fled from them, and ran up into the woods, and the English followed them, partly to see if they could speak with them, and partly to discover if there might not be more of them lying in ambush.

But the Indians seeing themselves thus followed, they again forsook the woods, and ran away on the sands as hard as they could, so as they could not come near them.

A few days later another party of Indians "held a meeting in a dark and dismal swamp where the medicine men for three days together tried vainly to subject the newcomers to the spell of their conjurations."

These strange white creatures with their long sticks killed beasts and birds beyond the reach of an arrow. Why should they not be regarded as gods? One Indian exclaimed when he first heard the report of a European firearm: "When we shoot, our bowstrings give a twang that's heard but a little way off. But do you not hear what cracks their bowstrings give?"

THE FRIENDLY SPIRIT IN WHICH THE INDIANS RECEIVED THE WHITE MAN IN THE VERY FIRST YEARS OF SETTLEMENT

Soon, however, in every settlement the Indians recognized the newcomers as *men*, men who had sailed from a distant land. Hesitatingly, but in a generally friendly spirit, they came to the white man's log villages and tried to get acquainted. They were handicapped, of course, by not knowing English, and the white men did not know their language. But there was the sign language, which everybody could understand, and soon, with the sign language to help them, a few on each side learned to speak to one another and they began to learn about one another.

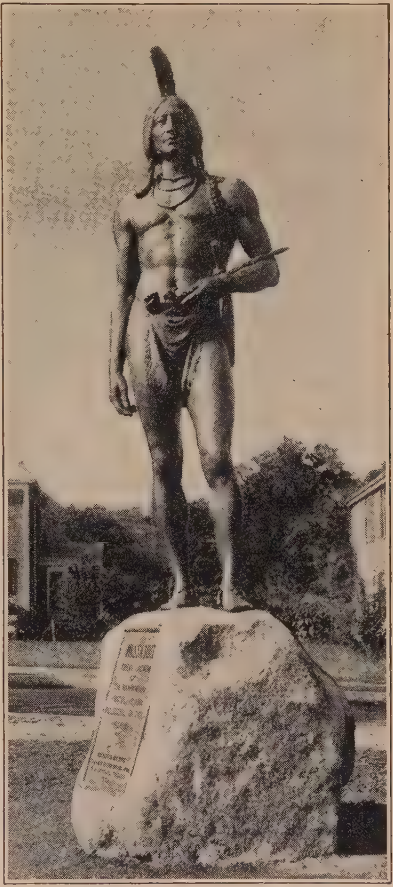
That the Indians first received the newcomers in a friendly spirit we are assured by the early reports. Captain Amidas of Raleigh's first colony records the friendly exchange of goods. He says, "We were entertained with all love and kindness and with as much bounty, after their manner, as they could possibly devise." Later he records: "The King's brother had great liking of our armor, a sword, and diverse other things which we had; and offered to lay a great box of pearls in gage for them. . . . He was very just of his promise, for many times we delivered him merchandise upon his word, but ever he came within the day and kept his promise."

MANY OF THE FIRST SETTLERS *BOUGHT* THE LAND FROM THE INDIANS

No doubt one reason for the friendly relations between the two peoples during those first years was that many of the colonists recognized that the Indians really owned the land. It was the red man's continent upon which white men were settling, and the white man must buy the land from him. So said Roger Williams, Thomas Hooker, William Penn, Lord Baltimore, Lord Delaware, Governor Oglethorpe, and others.

In the very first Jamestown settlements good feeling also prevailed. The leaders bought Jamestown Island from an Indian tribe. Even the warlike Captain John Smith purchased land near by.

In the first years at Plymouth the spirit was also friendly. In March, 1621, an Indian named Samoset appeared in the Pilgrim settlement. To the amazement of the people, he spoke to them in English, which he had learned from fishermen who came to a near-by island.



© Cyrus E. Dallin

FIG. 84. Massasoit, friend of the Plymouth settlers

The purpose of his visit was to arrange for a meeting between his chief, Massasoit, and Governor Bradford. A week later Massasoit appeared and signed a treaty of peace with the white men, which remained in force for 54 years. In 1623, when Massasoit fell very ill, Edward Winslow of the Plymouth colony visited him and fortunately cured him.

In the Dutch colony of New York the first reception of the white men was much the same. A Dutch historian remarked in 1623, "The natives of New Netherland (later New York) are very well disposed so long as no injury is done them, but if any wrong be committed against them they think it long till they be revenged."

Roger Williams in Massachusetts and Rhode Island insisted that the King of England had no right to grant away the land of the American Indians. Williams thought that the white men should purchase every bit of land they took, provided they could find the Indians who claimed it. In 1635 Williams was exiled from the Massachusetts Bay colony and, as he says, "was sorely tossed for one fourteen weeks, in a bitter winter season, not knowing what bed or bread did mean." During this time the Indian chiefs received him kindly, invited him to live with them, and later gave him land.

In more than one instance Williams's friendship with the Indians helped the very men who had exiled him from their colony. For example, in 1637, when the Connecticut and Massachusetts Bay settlers were in great danger from the Pequot Indians, Williams visited the wigwams of the Narraganset chiefs at the risk of his life and "broke to pieces the Pequot negotiation and design." Thus we see striking evidence that the Indians were prepared to receive the white men in a friendly spirit — if the white men would be fair to them. And many of the first settlers were.

In Maryland the white men bought and paid for the land. Leonard Calvert conferred with the inhabitants of the Indian village where he wished to make his settlement. (See figure 64.) Would they sell land which the white man might settle? Many hatchets and axes and much cloth would be given in return.

In Pennsylvania William Penn also made a treaty with the Indians. Before coming to America Penn had recognized the rights of the Indians to the land which he was receiving from King Charles. Shortly after his arrival in America Penn showed his good faith by making an agreement with the Indians for their land and their trade. The terms which he made were most agreeable to the Indians.

Penn wrote of the friendliness of the Indians that when

> an European comes to see them, or call for lodging at their house, or wigwam, they give him the best place, and first cut. If they come to visit us, they salute us with an *itah*, which is as much as to say, "Good be to you"; and set them down with us mostly on the ground . . . it may be they speak not a word, but observe all passages; if you give them anything to eat or drink, well, for they will not ask; and be it little or much, if it be with kindness, they are well pleased, else they go away sullen, but say nothing. . . .
>
> . . . In liberality they excel; nothing is too good for their friend; give them a fine gun, coat or other thing, it may pass twenty hands before it sticks; light of heart, strong affections, but soon spent . . . yet exact observers of property.

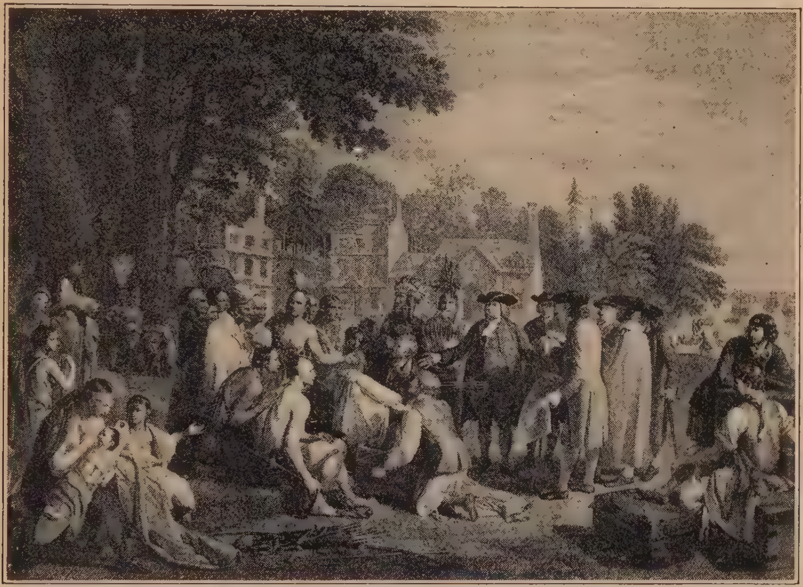


FIG. 85. William Penn's friendly treatment of the Indians resulted in peace with them throughout his colony for fifty years. (After a painting by Benjamin West)

Time proved that Penn was not mistaken. The Indians loved him with real affection. The Quaker settlers in Pennsylvania followed his command and treated them fairly. Often they intrusted the care of their children to the Indians. For over 50 years the people of eastern Pennsylvania lived in peace with them.

The first settlers of Georgia found well-intentioned Indians. Oglethorpe dealt wisely with the red men, recognizing their ownership of the land, and by paying the Indians goods which they wanted he procured large tracts of land. For a long time friendly relations remained because Oglethorpe and the Indians kept their promises to one another.

Thus in the very first years of most of the settlements there was much friendliness between the two races.

What the White Men paid the Indians for their Land

Do you think that the colonists paid the Indians money for their land? No; European money would be of no value to the red men.

What things were of value to them? Chiefly those things which they had not learned to make for themselves. Perhaps the most important of these were metal tools, other metal implements, and weapons. The Indians had never learned how to use iron and depended largely upon wood, stone, and bone. Indeed, we are not even sure that they all used flint or stone for their hatchets, knives, and other tools. Most frequently they made these out of bone, so that when they saw the Englishman's sharp, durable tools, his protective armor, and his powerful, long "shooting sticks," they wanted them.

The Indians had never learned how to weave cloth from wool; so they also wanted the white man's woolen cloth. They valued pretty and unusual-looking things, such as trinkets, ornaments, and glass beads. Many years later they came to value the horse highly, for it enabled them to travel rapidly and in some comfort, but so far as we know, until the coming of the white man the Indian had never used the horse.

So in exchange for hatchets, axes, swords, metal dishes, guns, woolen cloth, bits of mirrors, glass beads, and the like, the Indians sold to the white men the right to use the land in the new settlements.

A member of Raleigh's settlement at Roanoke wrote as follows of this exchange of goods with an Indian:

A day or two after this, we fell to trading with them, exchanging some things that we had for chamois, buffalo and deer skins: when we showed him all our packet of merchandise, of all things that he saw, a bright tin dish most pleased him, which he presently took up and clapt it before his breast, and after made a hole in the brim thereof and hung it about his neck, making signs that it would defend him against his enemy's arrows — for those people maintain a deadly and terrible war with the people and King adjoining. We exchanged our tin dish for twenty skins, worth twenty crowns, or twenty nobles: and a copper kettle for fifty skins worth fifty crowns.

Thus "trade" comes into the story. From the very beginning the white men and the Indians traded with one another. In *An Introduction to American Civilization* and in *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* you saw that *trade* was one of the most important activities in all countries and in all times. In the next volume of the history of American civilization, you will learn more about the rôle played by the trading of the Indian and the white man. As the new American colonists moved westward, claiming more and more of the continent, the white trader was always in the front. Many years before settlers reached the Ohio valley, the Mississippi Valley, the Western plains, or the Pacific coast, the white traders lived there in peace with the Indians. Be constantly alert, therefore, to note each important example of trade.

How the Indians helped the White Men make their First Settlements

In making their first settlements the white colonists were very dependent upon their Indian friends. The white men were 3000 miles from home, living in a wilderness which was completely unlike their homeland. All their ways of living failed to fit in with the strange wilds in which they found themselves. There were no roads. They had to learn to build houses out of logs and other materials.

Most of all they lacked food. As you have already learned, Champlain's colony at Quebec and Smith's Jamestown colony almost starved. In Jamestown the Indians helped the settlers during the first hard days in the New World. Captain John

Smith wrote: "Now every once in four or five days Pocahontas with her attendants brought in so much provision that saved many of their lives, that else for all this had starved with hunger."

Had it not been for friendly Indians, the Plymouth "plantation" would also have been wiped out by starvation. The Indians planted corn in hills, putting a herring into each hill as a fertilizer and also to appease the "corn god." Their Indian friends gave the settlers corn and taught them how to plant it on the thin New England soil. How well the white men imitated the agriculture of the Indian we see in our tremendous corn production today.

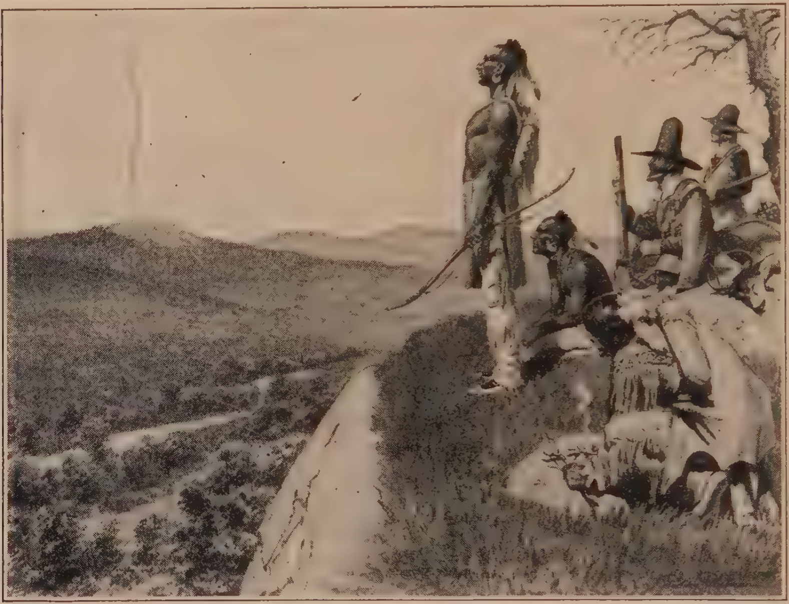


FIG. 86. Among other things the Indians taught the white man to send up smoke signals. By this means he could communicate with them and with other settlers if he needed their help

Remember that before the first American settlements corn (maize, as it was then called) was unknown in Europe. Within a short time, however, the knowledge of how to raise it from the soil was carried back to Europe. Increasingly corn was cultivated in European countries, with what result you already know from your study of *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World.*

So the white settlers learned from the Indians how to live in the new land. The red men taught them how to survive in the forest, to "blaze trails" through the wilderness, and to protect themselves from ambush. The colonists learned how to hunt bear and deer and to trap beaver and fox; how to build fires and to send up smoke signals. They learned the Indians' ways of using many wild herbs as medicines. The Indians taught them how to boil the sap of the sugar-maple trees and obtain maple sugar.

They learned new ways of transportation, especially on the rivers. More than any other one thing the Indian canoe helped the white man in his fur trade on the western frontier. And it was the fur trade which established the French colonies in Canada and made a fortune for many a trader.

Even the settler's speech was changed by his life in the red man's continent, as many Indian words came into his language. There were, for example, the names of animals which he found in the new land — skunk, woodchuck, raccoon, opossum; also the names of new foods which he learned to eat — hominy, succotash, pone, and the like.

In these and other ways the Indian helped the white man to establish himself upon the red man's continent.

SOON, HOWEVER, MISUNDERSTANDINGS DEVELOPED

The differences between these two races were so great that it was certain that misunderstanding and even armed conflict would develop. The red man and the white man spoke different languages. Their ways of living were different. Their wants and interests and their temperaments were different. Even though they succeeded in mastering each other's languages, neither of them ever completely understood the other's civilization.

It is possible for people to understand one another's civilization only by really *living* with one another, and few of these two groups ever did that. The white trappers and traders did it and a few Indians did, but only a few.

Some of the white traders lived for years with the Indians, learned their languages, were initiated into their tribes, married

Indian wives, and adopted their ways of living. Correspondingly some Indians joined the white settlements, adopted "civilized" dress, learned English, married and settled down in the colonial communities. But most of them — both Indians and Englishmen — lived in their own communities and never really learned to understand one another.

Misunderstandings soon developed in nearly all the colonies. Before many years had passed, the whole frontier, from Massachusetts to Virginia, was in a state of armed warfare. Once started it continued until 1880, when the white man had completely conquered the red man's continent.

Let us study some examples of the way in which these misunderstandings developed and led finally to wars which wiped out both white settlements and Indian tribes.

An important example: misunderstanding concerning the "ownership" of land

We have seen that in each of the colonies the more fair-minded settlers recognized the Indians' ownership of the land and purchased it from them. In a few cases, as in Pennsylvania, the purchase treaties were kept peacefully for many, many years. In most instances, however, they were not kept, and trouble soon developed. In some cases each party thought of the agreement about the ownership of property in a different way. The Englishmen thought they were buying the land outright. Peter Minuit, for example, thought he was purchasing Manhattan Island for the $24 worth of trinkets which he gave the Indians. William Penn thought of his purchase of Pennsylvania in the same way.

The Indians thought differently, however. Most of them were in the habit of "leasing or renting" land. They thought they were selling the white men *the use of the land.* When Indians sold land they thought they were merely giving permission to kill game and catch fish upon it, or allowing a right of way through it. To most of these Indian tribes "buying land" did not give the purchaser the right to exclude others from it. This difference of opinion played a very important part in the relations between the two races, for as the white settlements appeared farther and farther westward the Indians became increasingly alarmed. As the English colonists built homes on the frontier, the Indians' hunting grounds were constantly being intruded upon.

Perhaps the warfare that developed out of disputes over the land was unavoidable because the civilizations of the red man and the white man differed so greatly. The two peoples had little idea of what was passing through each other's minds. To the white man's mind the Indian was a "savage." To the Indian, the white man had developed a complicated "civilization," which the Indian could not understand.

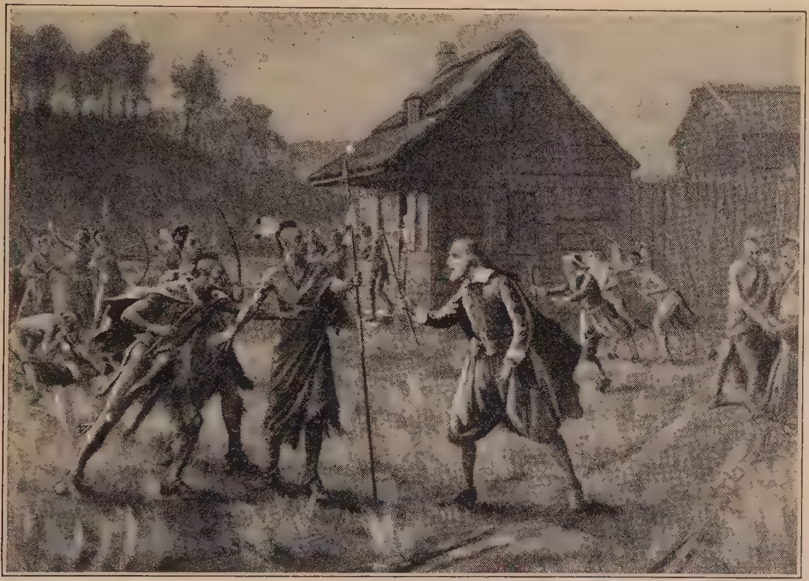


FIG. 87. Misunderstandings between the settlers and the Indians soon resulted in raids on the homes of the settlers. Those white people who lived far from their neighbors had little chance of defending themselves. (From a painting by John Ward Dunsmore. Courtesy of the Title Guarantee and Trust Company, New York)

The Indians thought that surely there was room for both the red men and the white men on the great North American continent. Some of the white men thought that, too, but to most of the settlers such an idea was impossible. They had risked the dangers of the Atlantic and the wilderness to get a better, a more comfortable living. Practically all of them were ambitious for a fortune, and no matter how much land they got they wanted more land and better land. Hence the urge was always to move westward, to take up the land "over yonder."

For 250 years American history developed a tremendous movement in which the Indian, decade by decade, was pushed farther and farther westward.

WARFARE SOON STARTED

In several colonies misunderstandings quickly led to war. No sooner did the Englishmen in the Jamestown colony begin to cultivate their little plots of land which Smith and the settlers had purchased, than there was trouble. "The savages murmured about planting in the countrie," remarked one settler. Within a few months Captain Smith himself was taken captive by the Algonquin Indians. Several of his men were killed and Smith was taken before the "Emperor," Powhatan, the chieftain of the Algonquin tribes. Powhatan was called "Emperor" by the Englishmen because he was the head of a confederation of 34 Algonquin tribes near Chesapeake Bay.

During the next few years the Indians of Chesapeake Bay were almost constantly at war with the unfortunate Jamestown settlers. In the winter of 1609–1610 colonists to the number of 27 were slain, and in revenge the settlers seized Powhatan's lands. Finally, Pocahontas, of whom you have already learned in Chapter IV, married John Rolfe, one of the settlers, and peace was restored. A few years later both Pocahontas and the "Emperor" died, and then came more plots and counterplots. The Indians raided the English settlements, and a white man was killed. The white men then killed the chief of the invading tribe. For months warfare went on, until finally, in 1636, peace was restored and the white men could once more cultivate their fields and build their houses.

Peace lasted in the Jamestown colony until 1644. On Good Friday, during a special feast, the Indians attacked the colony, massacring 300 white people. The governor of the colony sent out an expedition, and the Indians were driven into the back country. The blind, aged chieftain, Powhatan's brother, was taken prisoner, brought to Jamestown, and executed. As a result of that war a treaty was signed between the Virginia colonists and the Indians which lasted for 30 years.

By that time (1675) the Englishmen had definitely driven the Indians back many miles from the seaboard. The frontier — the back country — was well up in the hills, and a friendly beaver-fur trade was flourishing between the Indians and the English traders.

In 1675, however, one Indian tribe murdered two Virginia farmers of the back country. At once an armed force was sent against the Indians; many of the tribesmen were killed, and soon the frontier was torn by Indian warfare. The small planters appealed to the governor for aid, but the governor refused it. The following year (1676) there was another uprising of the Indians, in which many families were murdered and planters fled from their homes. Lacking aid from the governor, the frontiersmen organized their own militia under the young planter Nathaniel Bacon. Bacon and his men attacked the Indians and are reported to have killed more than 100 of them.

Thus the warfare continued decade after decade in Virginia. As a result, before 1700, the frontier had been moved well back into the hills. The seaboard plantations and villages were safe from the Indians. The frontier planters were establishing their farms from about 100 to 200 miles from the seaboard. A fairly deep strip of the red man's continent had already been made the permanent property of the English colonist. Already — that is, by 1700 — the westward movement of the new American people was beginning.

The peaceful Plymouth settlers also soon had trouble with the Indians. They had been living in their little log community only about a year when a near-by tribe of Indians, the Narragansets, challenged them to battle. Canonicus, the chief of the Narragansets, sent Governor Bradford some arrows tied with a snake skin — a definite challenge to war. Bradford determined to meet the challenge, and so returned the snake skin filled with bullets, whereupon Canonicus decided to postpone the war, and there was peace between the Plymouth colonists and the Indians. Nevertheless, the Plymouth men promptly built a log stockade around the colony and maintained a regular guard.

Indian Wars in New England

1. The Pequot War, 1637, and the difficulty with Uncas

On the map, figure 88, you will note that the region now known as New England was inhabited by many tribes of Indians. Although each had a special name, they all belonged to the general language group of Algonquins.

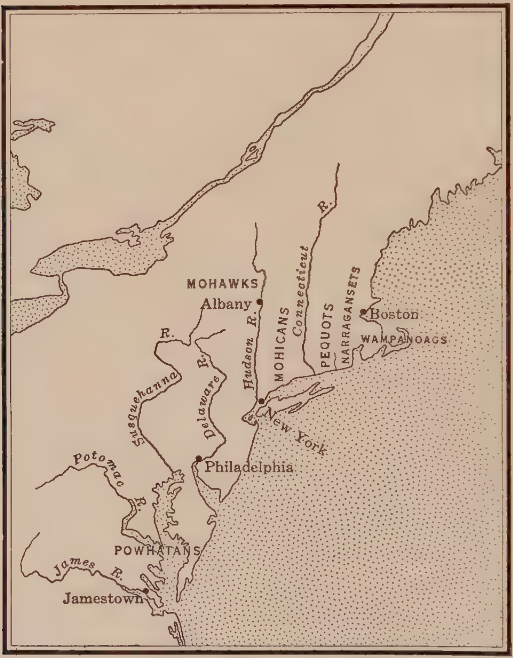

MOHAWKS
Albany
R.
Hudson R.
MOHICANS
Connecticut R.
PEQUOTS
NARRAGANSETS
Boston
WAMPANOAGS
Susquehanna R.
Delaware R.
New York
Philadelphia
Potomac R.
POWHATANS
James R.
Jamestown

FIG. 88. The map shows the location of important Indian tribes and the colonial towns near them

No sooner did the settlers move southward from Massachusetts and take Indian lands in Connecticut and Rhode Island than trouble began. Almost at once parties of Indians attacked English settlements. The Indians had boasted that "Englishmen were as easy to kill as mosquitoes." The Pequots tried to get the Narragansets to join them against the white men; but, as you have already learned, Roger Williams succeeded in maintaining friendly relations between the settlers of the Massachusetts Bay colony and the Narraganset tribe of Indians.

In June, 1638, a general war broke out with the Pequots, which lasted only a month, but in that time an entire Indian tribe was wiped out of existence. There were raids and massacres on both sides. Finally 90 men under Captain John Mason surrounded the Pequot fort, located in a swamp on the Mystic River, and killed nearly 400 Indians. The Englishmen threw torches into the wigwams, and Indian women and children were burned to death.

Shortly afterwards the remaining Pequots assembled at another fort. The English colonists, aided by other Indians who hated the Pequots, attacked and almost wiped out the remainder of the tribe. It was estimated that not more than 100 Pequots remained in Connecticut. The chief of the tribe fled westward to the Mohawks, who murdered him. Thus the land of the tribe became the property of the new Connecticut colony.

For a few years there was peace. Uncas, the chief of the Mohicans, and Miantonomo, the sachem of the Narragansets, had made a treaty of peace with the Connecticut colony. But in order to keep peace the Connecticut colonists adopted what many historians believe was "a dishonorable policy of attempting to divide the Indians in order to rule them." The two Indian chieftains hated each other, for each wanted to be supreme in Connecticut. Each tribe, therefore, tried to win the help of the white men. On their side the white men tried to make trouble between the two Indian tribes. They succeeded.

In 1643 war broke out between the Mohicans under Uncas and the Narragansets under Miantonomo. Miantonomo was defeated, was captured by Uncas, and, with the consent of the officials of the Massachusetts Bay colony, was murdered.

The Pequot War and the outbreaks which followed, therefore, illustrate two facts of importance. First, they indicate that the Indians were quarreling among themselves and were not united. Indeed, throughout American history the Indians have rarely ever been united. Many historians believe that that fact accounted to a large extent for the success of the white men in driving the Indians westward. The white men, now beginning to outnumber the Indians, acted together, and the Indians, divided into small scattered tribes, were defeated.

Second, the trouble illustrates that the colonists were inevitably drawn into war with the Indians because of the constant skirmishes among the various tribes. It was difficult, if not impossible, for the colonists to remain at peace with the red men, for if they made a peace treaty with one tribe, the enemies of that tribe believed that the white man could not be friends with them if he was friendly with their Indian enemies. Thus warfare with one or another tribe could not be avoided.

2. King Philip's War, 1675-1676

For over 30 years after the wiping out of the Pequot tribe Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut suffered little from Indian attack. During that time Uncas and the Connecticut settlers coöperated under a treaty of peace. But jealousy of one another was smoldering among the Indian tribes themselves.

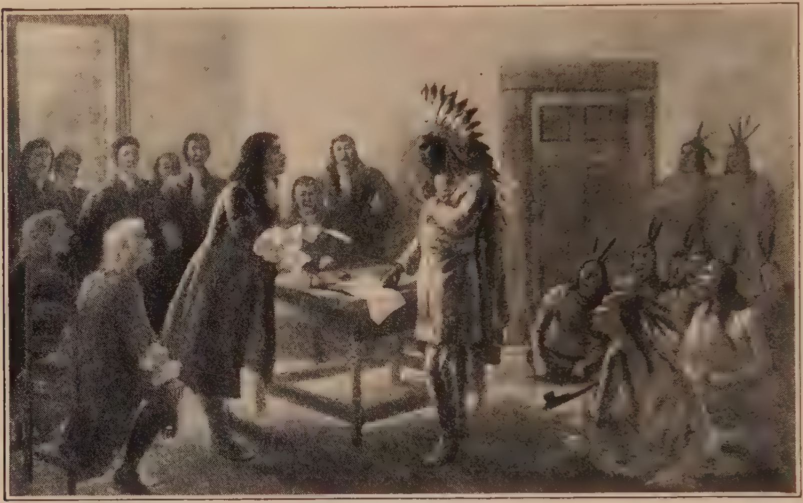


FIG. 89. King Philip signed a treaty with the white men in 1671. Misunderstanding soon developed, however, and in 1675 his tribes attacked one settlement after another. (From a painting by W. S. Savory. Courtesy of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company, Boston)

The English settlements were spreading farther and farther back from the coast. Year by year more Indian land was taken. Steadily the Narragansets and other tribes saw themselves in danger of being driven out of their old homes along the coast.

In 1674 a leader appeared among the Indians who organized the New England tribes to wage war upon the colonists. This was Metacomo, the second son of that Chief Massasoit who had been friendly to the English in the first months of settlement at Plymouth. Metacomo was a proud, gifted leader. He and his older brother had been taken into the Plymouth colony and named Philip and Alexander. Philip became embittered against the whites because he believed they had poisoned Alexander.

Furthermore, Philip's tribesmen were constantly annoyed by the whites. So when Philip became "King" of the Wampanoags his people clamored for war. In spite of a treaty, he started, secretly at first, to organize the tribes against the white men, and during the next dozen years he succeeded in uniting the tribes from the Atlantic seaboard to the Connecticut River.

In the summer of 1675 the warriors fell upon one New England settlement after another. Village after village was raided. Homes were burned, and colonists were massacred. In Swansea nine white people were killed. Taunton, Rehoboth, Hatfield, Northfield, Springfield, Westfield, were all attacked. Even the Narragansets, who had lived at peace with the white men for nearly 40 years, joined Philip.

In the winter of 1675–1676 commissioners of the United Colonies (New England) raised a large body of troops and began a vigorous campaign against the red men. Slowly the Indians weakened, small parties of them were captured, some of them deserted Philip and went over to the white men, and finally, in 1676, Philip himself was murdered by another Indian in a swamp near Narragansett Bay. As his body was pulled out of the swamp one of the witnesses of the event said, "A doleful great naked dirty beast he looked like." His body was "quartered." Later his head was displayed in the Plymouth colony.

In the Meantime Other White Men were trying to educate and convert the Indians

We must not carry away the impression that most of the white men wanted only to drive away the Indians. From the first days of settlement many of the English leaders tried to help the Indians. William Penn recognized the need for educating and converting the Indians. He said, "These poor people are under a dark night in things relating to religion." Some leaders sent missionaries among them and organized schools. They gave them better tools for tilling the soil, taught them weaving and many other crafts, and gave them new ideas about industry and commerce. Indeed, education was one of the chief ways through which the white man tried to help the Indian.

"Education" of the Indians, however, meant to most of the white leaders converting them to the Christian religion. They taught them to read in order that they might read the Bible and other religious writings. In the Massachusetts Bay colony, for example, John Eliot was known as the Apostle to the Indians because of his kindly devotion to them. With the aid of a few Indians he translated the English Bible into one of the Indian languages, and this was printed in 1684. The Indians were permitted to come to church services, and Eliot tells us that the minister "first preacheth in English to the Indians, by an interpreter whom, with much pains, Mr. Gookin hath foreprepared." Eliot also says that there were about ten different places in Plymouth where Indians met to worship.

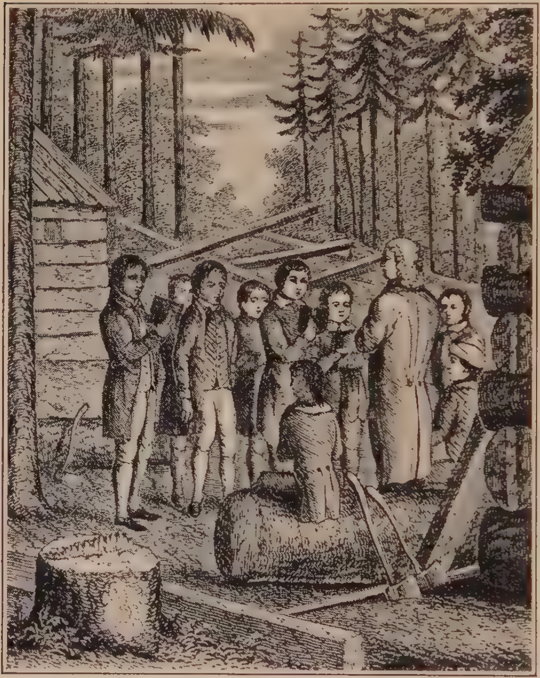


FIG. 90. Eleazar Wheelock's school, founded in 1750, out of which has grown Dartmouth College. (From an old engraving)

Numbers of Indian schools were established, and some of these grew into large and important colleges. For example, in 1750 Eleazar Wheelock, who had previously worked as a missionary with the Indians of Connecticut, established an Indian school at Hanover, New Hampshire, which later became Dartmouth College. An Indian school was opened in connection with the College of William and Mary, in Virginia. Elementary schools were started in many colonial towns and parishes, where Indians were taught "without charge" to read the catechism and to write. As years went on missionaries learned to speak the Indian dialects and became interpreters between the white officials and the Indian people.

SUMMARY

Thus we have sketched rapidly the way in which the colonists and the Indians lived together during the 1600's. We have seen the Indian's frightened bewilderment at his first sight of the "palefaces." We have noted his hesitating but generally friendly reception of the newcomers

We have seen this friendly spirit, however, steadily changed to suspicion as misunderstanding developed.

Especially we have learned how impossible it was to prevent misunderstandings because of ignorance of each other's language and the sharp difference between the civilizations of the two races. The misunderstandings which arose in connection with the buying of land illustrate one kind of trouble which might have been avoided if the white man and the Indian had understood each other's language and way of living. We have seen how difficult it was for the two civilizations to live together side by side during the first 100 years of settlement. The European colonists wanted land and more land. They were never satisfied, always moving westward, taking more of the Indians' hunting ground and homeland. So after some years of uncertainty the Indians tried to oppose the westward march of the white men by armed force.

We have learned of the warfare among the Indian tribes. Try as the colonists might it was impossible to make treaties with one tribe or confederation without involving themselves in war with another tribe.

Frequently warfare was brought on by the irresponsible acts of individuals or small groups, both among white men and among Indians. Were there space in this book we could cite hundreds of instances in which general warfare was started as a result of outrages on the colonists committed by small parties of Indians. Perhaps it would be best to say that the Indians and white men were equally responsible for the massacres and raids.

After 1700 a new chapter in the story of the relations between the Indians and the Europeans was begun. A new factor must be studied, namely, the struggle between France and England for control of the red men's continent.

Recall that while Englishmen had been settling their thirteen colonies from New Hampshire to Georgia, Frenchmen had established themselves in Canada from Quebec to the Great Lakes. In the valley of the St. Lawrence and on both sides of the Great Lakes French trading posts had been built, and it was natural to suppose that sooner or later the English and the French would clash. Each would try to drive the other out of North America. Another factor was that during these years England and France were frequently at war with each other; hence their colonists and traders in the New World were sure to be drawn into the conflict before long.

To the story of this next important phase of the struggle for North America we turn in Chapter IX.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

See the reading lists for Chapters I and IX.

CHAPTER IX

THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH STRUGGLE FOR NORTH AMERICA

The French Settlements stretched in a Long Thin Line west of the more thickly Settled English Colonies

"You and the French," said an Indian warrior to an English colonist, "are like the two edges of a pair of shears, and we are the cloth which is cut to pieces between them."

So it must have seemed to many of the Indian tribes east of the Mississippi and south of the St. Lawrence River. And so indeed it was. By 1750 the frontier of the English colonies had gone as far as the Appalachian hills. (See the map, figure 91.) The Indians had been either taken into the white men's communities or driven back beyond that frontier.

In the Early 1700's the English had driven the Indians and the French out of "Maine"

In the early part of the eighteenth century French settlements extended along the Kennebec River into what is now Maine. After the Indians in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut had been either wiped out or driven back across the Hudson, the English colonists started to settle the same region. By 1713 the smoke from many English log cabins could be seen along the Kennebec River.

The Indians were alarmed at this and protested against the coming of the white men. The French officials and priests in charge of the straggling line of trading posts stirred up the Indians to drive the oncoming Englishmen back to Massachusetts.

But the Englishmen far outnumbered both the Indians and the French traders. From 1721 until 1727 murderous warfare went on between the Abnaki Indians along the Kennebec River and the English colonists settling in Maine. The homes of the colonists were burned. Women and children, old men and young men, were murdered. Captives were brutally mutilated or burned at the stake.

On the other hand, whole villages of border Indians were massacred by the Massachusetts troops. By 1727 nearly all the warriors of the Abnaki tribe were killed. Those that still lived had been driven north and west to a new frontier. As in Massachusetts, so in New York, in Virginia, in the Carolinas, the conflict ended in the usual way.

Thus by 1750 the center of the conflict between the English and the French and their Indian allies lay in New York and western Pennsylvania.

BY 1750 THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH CONFLICT CENTERED ABOUT NEW YORK STATE AND WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA

On the map of figure 91 note the location of the important French forts and trading posts from Lake Ontario and New York State to Lake Erie and the valley of the Ohio. Between the French settlements and the new English frontier the land was held by many Indian tribes. Now, it was into this region that the English were pressing westward and northward. It was into this region also that the French were pressing eastward and southward. Here was to be the struggle of the English and the French for North America.

It is important to note the location of the principal Indian tribes and the French and English outposts. As you will remember from our previous discussion in Chapter I, the strong warlike Iroquois occupied the valley of the Mohawk River and the lands westward to the Great Lakes. There were no more powerful Indian tribes in North America than those within the League of the Iroquois. For many decades they had waged successful warfare against the Indians far to the south and to the north of them. Many tribes — the Powhatans below the Potomac River, the Delawares north of it, and the Hurons and the Ottawas in the Great Lakes district — recognized the Iroquois as their masters.

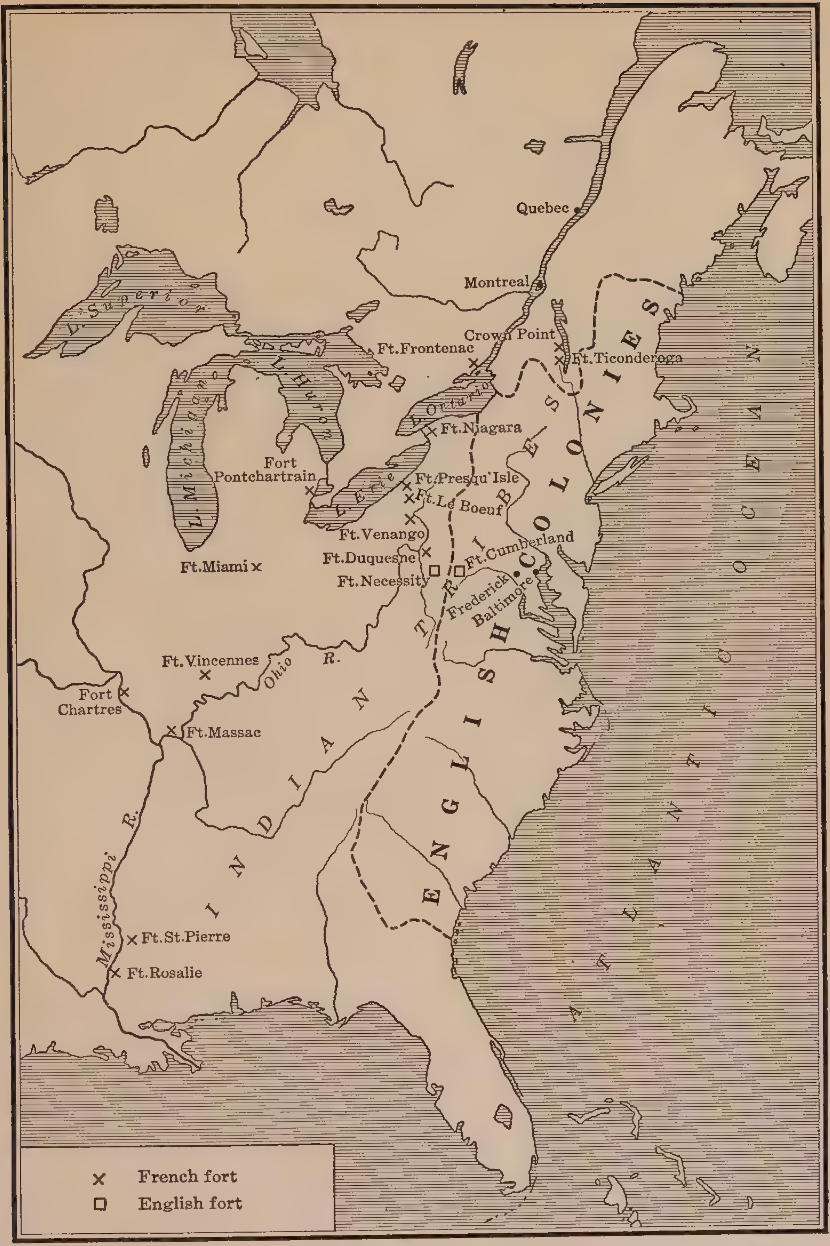

Quebec
Montreal
L. Superior
L. Huron
L. Michigan
L. Ontario
L. Erie
Crown Point
Ft. Frontenac
Ft. Ticonderoga
Ft. Niagara
Fort Pontchartrain
Ft. Presqu' Isle
Ft. Le Boeuf
Ft. Venango
Ft. Duquesne
Ft. Necessity
Ft. Cumberland
Frederick
Baltimore
Ft. Miami
Ft. Vincennes
Ohio R.
Fort Chartres
Ft. Massac
Mississippi R.
Ft. St. Pierre
Ft. Rosalie
INDIAN TERRITORY
ENGLISH COLONIES
ATLANTIC OCEAN
× French fort
□ English fort

Fig. 91. The English colonies stretched along the Atlantic seaboard. The French line of forts followed the Great Lakes and the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. The eastern Indians were herded into the territory which lay between

In the French and English struggle for North America the Iroquois were the most important single Indian group, and both nations tried to win them as allies. The French built forts closer and closer to them as they moved south of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes. Traders and missionaries tried to establish friendly relations with them. But the Iroquois preferred the English. There were two reasons for this preference: their hatred for the Hurons and their friendship for William Johnson.

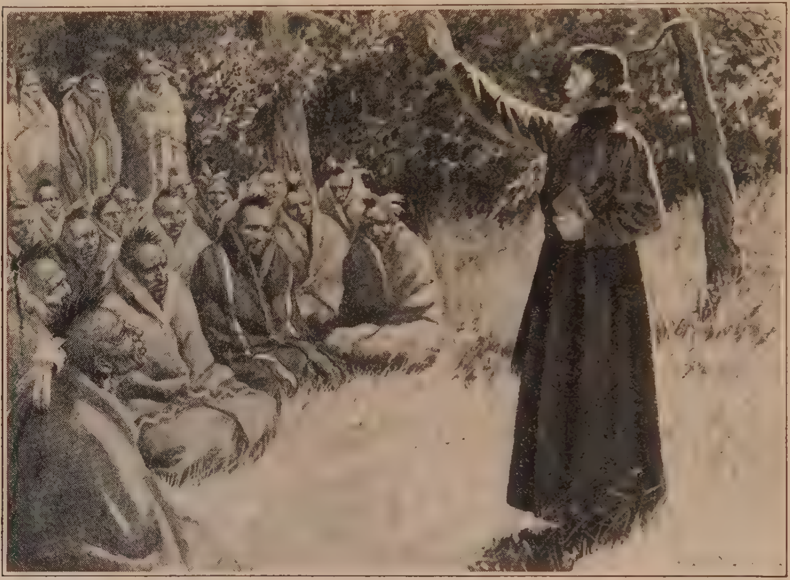


FIG. 92. French missionaries tried to gain the friendship of the Iroquois Indians, who listened respectfully to all the priests told them; but their friendship had long been given to the English and they would not change

In Chapter V you learned that the French had become the allies of the Hurons. By this alliance they had secured the undying enmity of the Iroquois. In the early 1600's the Hurons, with the help of the French governor, Champlain, had defeated the Iroquois in a battle near Lake Champlain. The Iroquois never forgot it and formed a constant barrier to French expansion into the fertile Mohawk valley. When the French and the English lined up many years later for their struggle for North America, the Iroquois took sides with the English.

From lower New York the English came building their outposts. A tactful, intelligent settler, William Johnson, established one of these outposts in the Mohawk valley, where he built up a great estate, called Fort Johnson, at a point about 25 miles west of where Schenectady is now.

For many years Johnson's home was the meeting place of many of the Indian leaders. It was presided over by Indian wives — the first, a daughter of "King Hendrick," a Mohawk chieftain; the second, her young niece, Molly Brant.

Throughout his life Johnson was an intimate friend of the Iroquois. More than any other single person, he helped the English colonists to keep the friendship of the powerful League of the Iroquois. Partly because of this service the English King gave him the title of Sir William Johnson.

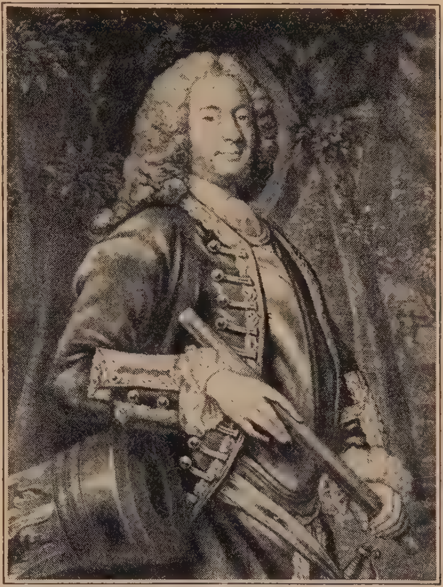


Fig. 93. Sir William Johnson, an Irish settler, whose friendship with the Iroquois played an important part in the French and Indian War

Here, then, about 1750, stood the French and English Colonies facing Each Other

Thus we see that the French and the English were rivals in America as they were in Europe. The colonies of the two great countries were facing each other in the New World, where there was to be no peace until one should drive the other out.

In order to understand the strength of the two rival powers in the New World, let us see in what ways the colonies differed.

Look again at the map showing the French and English territories. What differences between the two do you notice?

1. *The first difference — the amount of territory controlled.* Shut in between the Appalachians and the sea, the English colonies had only begun to move across the mountains. Notice on the map, figure 67, how small their territory was compared with the vast territory claimed by the French along the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. You can understand that the English would be alarmed at being encircled by the French.

The French claimed the entire territory from the *mouth* of the Mississippi River to the *mouth* of the St. Lawrence and beyond. With such a vast sweep of land under their control they intended to hem in the English settlements and shut them out of the trade with the Indians.

Many of the branches of the Mississippi had their sources near the sources of rivers which emptied into the Great Lakes; hence by means of a short land carry it was possible to connect the Mississippi with the Great Lakes. At the lower end of the Mississippi the French traders from the north could keep in fairly close contact with the friendly Spanish settlements. Thus with the Mississippi, the Great Lakes, and their tributary rivers, France had the largest system for inland navigation to be found anywhere in the New World.

2. *The second difference — population.* The French colonies suffered from one grave weakness: they had never had enough colonists in North America to hold their claims to the vast empire. You remember that religious and political disturbances in England had caused great numbers of people to sail to the New World in hopes of bettering their condition. Now, in France, although there were religious troubles at the same time as in England, the King made the mistake of refusing to let religious refugees from the mother country go to the French colonies.

So the French colonies had very few inhabitants. Look at the graph, figure 94, and notice the great difference in the number of settlers in French and in English territory. Although France claimed a much greater territory than England, she had less than one fifteenth as many settlers to hold her land.

On the other hand, the smaller English colonies were fairly thickly settled by 1,250,000 people. For the most part these English colonists lived a community life, depending upon agriculture, trade, and industry for their livelihood. Settlers brought their wives and families with them and lived much as they had lived in England. Towns and villages were growing up.

In the long thin line of French settlement, however, there was quite a different situation. The population necessarily was scattered widely. While a few of the French people lived in communities and farmed, the majority preferred the life of the *coureurs de bois*, who made their living from the fur trade. Another fairly large proportion of them were sent to guard the forts. There were only a few French towns, and most of them were in the cold northern St. Lawrence region. There were few women and few settled homes.

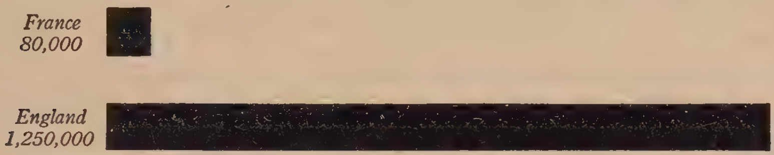


FIG. 94. The population of the French and English colonies in 1750

Thus the small, compact, fairly thickly settled British colonies had found a firm foothold in settled communities, while most of the French colonists roamed the woods.

3. *The third difference — their dealings with the Indians.* The French *coureurs de bois* led a life very much like that of the Indians. They trapped and hunted in the forests, paddled their birch-bark canoes, and camped in the open woods. They were easy-going, pleasure-loving fellows who had no real ill will toward Indians. They frequently took Indian wives, dressed in Indian clothing, and forgot much of their old life in France. They were willing to fight with the Indians against enemy tribes, and many of the Indians were willing to fight with the French against the English.

Most of the English, however, were less tolerant of the Indians. Many despised the red men, whom they considered savages, and few Englishmen really tried to understand the life and the civilization of the tribes. They considered the Indians merely as an evil to be got out of the way as quickly as possible. As a result many of the Indians never had for the English colonists the same feeling of affection and respect as for the French.

There were other differences — differences in the modes of living of French and English colonists in the New World. In carrying on their fur trade the French worked with the Indians as partners. The Indians trapped for the French in return for fine new kinds of goods never known before in the New World. The Indians thus made an interesting profit from their age-long habit of hunting. Far from interfering with established Indian customs, the French adapted themselves as much as possible to their ways.

On the other hand, the English settlers who came with their families preferred to live the settled life of farm and town. Since they wanted ever larger and larger clearings on which to settle, they steadfastly cleared land which the Indians had always owned, and destroyed ancient Indian hunting grounds, nor did they always offer to pay for what they took. The English colonists could not live with the Indians; so they forced the Indians to move inland.

As you have already seen, however, the English had Indian allies. They were fortunate to have the support of the Iroquois, the most powerful and organized group of Indian tribes.

WAR BETWEEN THE FRENCH AND ENGLISH IN AMERICA, 1752–1760

That there was to be a conflict which would settle whether the French or the English should control North America few men doubted. For years along the border there had been a fight here and a raid there. Hideous affairs they were — sudden attacks on defenseless settlements; the massacre of men, women, and children alike; treachery and cruelty.

The years went on and differences became greater. Both sides knew that it was but a matter of time until their combined forces would face each other in battle. In 1754 actual hostilities broke out.

THE HEADWATERS OF THE OHIO — THE PATHWAY TO THE WEST — WERE THE SCENE OF THE FIRST CONFLICT

The Ohio — the Beautiful River, as the Indians called it — led into the rich interior of the continent. The English had reached the head of this river valley, where the Allegheny and the Monongahela meet to form the broad Ohio. From the north the French looked on distrustfully.

Then in 1752 the English made a plunge. Their native allies, the Iroquois, claimed that they had brought the Indians of the Ohio valley under their control, and so could dispose of the lands as they wished. The English, ready to gain any land they could, pushed this claim and negotiated with the Iroquois for the region.

Soon a group of Virginians organized the Ohio Company to trade and colonize this fertile valley. A few settlers boldly moved to the banks of the Ohio, and the English colonies were prepared to add a large slice of French territory to theirs.

But there were the French in the north looking watchfully on. They claimed this region by virtue of La Salle's discovery. Did the English imagine they would permit it to be wrested easily from their hands? If so, they were greatly mistaken. A French force moved south and built the stout Fort Le Bœuf on one of the streams flowing into the Allegheny.

YOUNG MAJOR GEORGE WASHINGTON FIGHTS THE FRENCH, 1754

This would never do. The governor of Virginia immediately dispatched a young surveyor and army officer named George Washington, whose two brothers were interested in the Ohio Company, to go north and request the French to step out quietly and avoid trouble. Young Washington, only 21 years of age, made this dangerous and difficult journey north through forests and over mountains in November and December, 1753. But he and the governor of Virginia received only the assurance of the French commander that he had no intention of leaving.

The governor persisted and sent a party of men north to build a fort at the forks where the Monongahela and Allegheny joined to form the Ohio. He wrote to a friend that he had decided "to send immediately out 200 Men to protect those already sent by the Ohio Company to build a fort, and to resist any attempts on them. I have Commissioned Major George Washington, the Bearer hereof, to command."[1]

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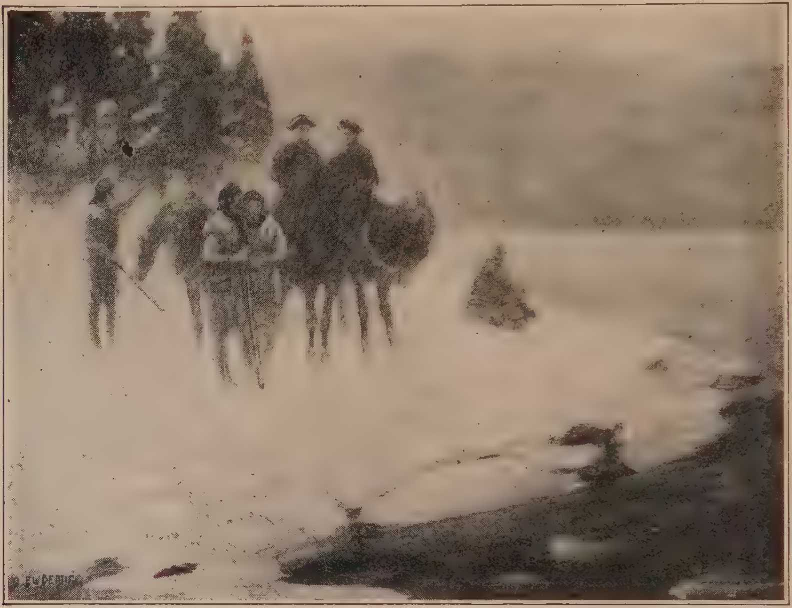
[1] Reuben Gold Thwaites, *France in America*, p. 159. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1905.

In April, 1754, however, 500 or 600 Frenchmen and Indians moved down the river in canoes and captured the partly-built fort at the forks. Young Washington with his small force was defeated, and the French completed the building of the fort and named it Fort Duquesne. They were now in control of the Ohio valley.



© E. W. Deming

FIG. 95. Young Washington and his men at the junction of the Allegheny and the Monongahela rivers. It was here that the building of the English fort was begun. (From a painting by E. W. Deming)

HOW THE ENGLISH GENERAL, BRADDOCK, TRIED TO RETAKE FORT DUQUESNE

The struggle was well under way when the mother countries, who never hesitated to get into conflict with each other, began to send military forces to the colonies.

From England in 1755 came General Braddock with his red-coated English regiments. Here were a man and an army well trained in European warfare. How they despised Washington's rough backwoods soldiers! "Were they soldiers at all?" thought the Englishmen. And the backwoodsmen on their part resented the haughtiness of the British, and said in no uncertain terms that they would never be any good at forest warfare.

Braddock felt sure he could clear up this little backwoods quarrel in no time. At Fort Cumberland he tried to discipline the Americans, who had been accustomed to fighting as the Indians fought. He would cut a road, he decided, along the old trail that led from Cumberland to the Monongahela. Over this road his army could march.

Soon the road was completed, and the army set out for the wilderness.

It was no easy task to force their way over that rugged ground, bordered with an unbroken growth of forest; and the difficulty was increased by the needless load of luggage which burdened them. So tedious was their progress that, by the advice of Washington, 1200 chosen men moved on in advance with the lighter baggage and artillery, leaving the rest of the army to follow by slower stages with the heavy wagons.

On July 8 the advance body reached the Monongahela, at a point not far distant from Fort Duquesne.

It was past noon of a day brightened with the clear sunlight of an American midsummer, when the forces of Braddock began, for a second time, to cross the Monongahela, at the fording place, which to this day bears the name of their ill-fated leader. The scarlet columns of the British soldiers, the backwoodsmen with shouldered rifles, the trains of artillery and the white-topped wagons, moved on in a long procession through the broad and shallow current and slowly mounted the opposite bank.

With steady and well-ordered march the troops advanced into the great tangle of woods which shadowed the eastern borders of the river. Rank after rank vanished from sight. The forest swallowed them up, and the silence of the wilderness sank down once more on the shores and waters of the Monongahela.

But no sooner had they arrived in the forest than a great force of French and Indians attacked them. The bright red uniforms of the English were targets for the seasoned French and Indian fighters, who shot unseen from behind trees and stumps and brush. Some of the English soldiers would have followed their example. Indeed, it was the way the colonists had learned to fight. Washington advised Braddock to let the men fight that way, but would Braddock let them? Not he! Who ever heard of an English army fighting from behind trees? Out into the open, then, and make the ranks solid! So Braddock rode here and there calling his soldiers "cowards" and beating them out into the open. What if they were mowed down? Skulking behind trees was not the way to fight!

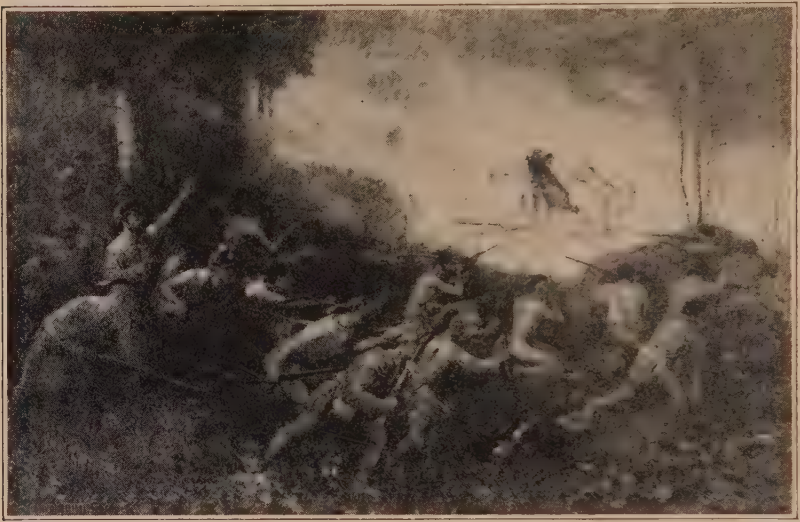


FIG. 96. General Braddock, refusing to fight "Indian fashion," was mortally wounded. Knowing that the battle was lost, Washington ordered a retreat and saved the remnant of the British and American army. (From a painting by E. W. Deming. Courtesy of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin)

At last came a fatal bullet. Braddock was wounded.

Washington took his place and ordered the retreat for the English and Americans, who were in a panic and in flight. Their loss that day was terrible.

After Braddock's defeat the French still held the valley of the Ohio, and the conflict went on along the French-English border, from the Atlantic to the Great Lakes. Now victory was on this side, now on that.

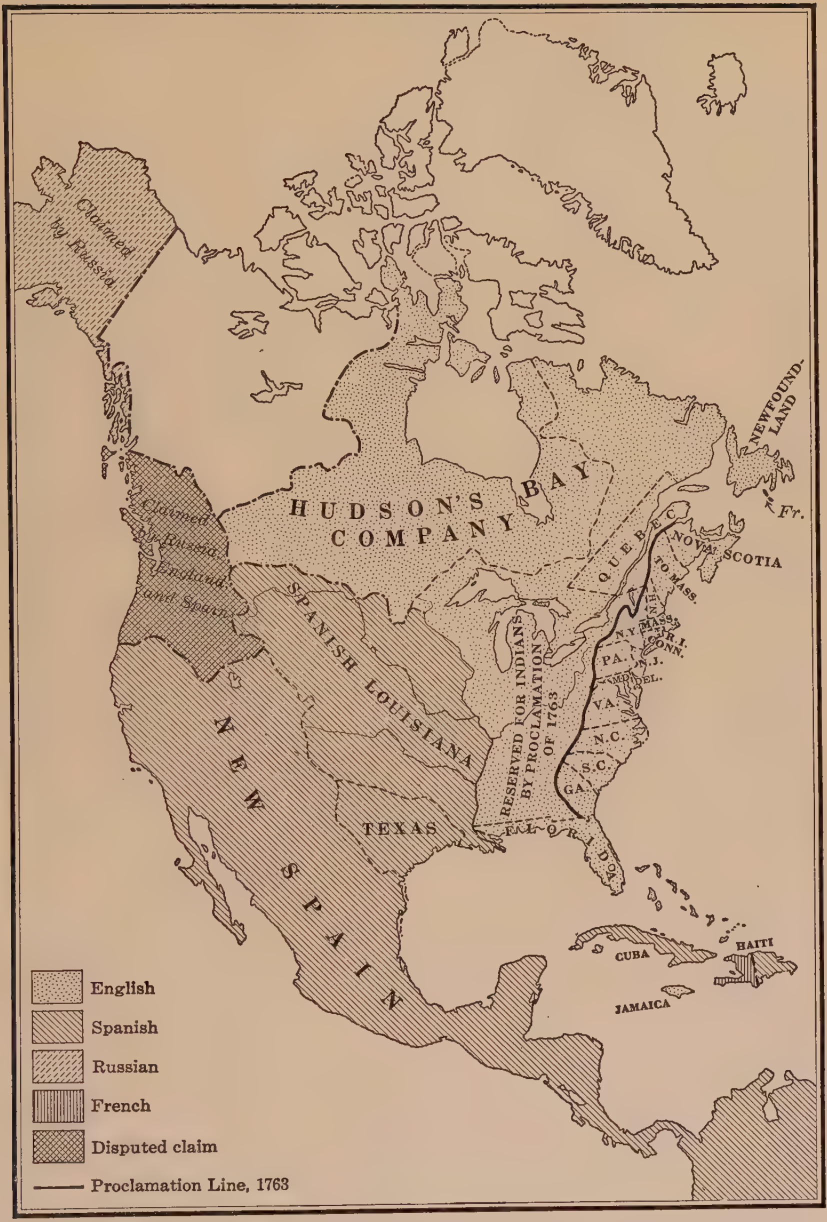

Claimed by Russia
Claimed by Russia, England and Spain
HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY
NEWFOUNDLAND
Fr.
QUEBEC
NOVA SCOTIA
TO MASS.
N.H.
MASS.
N.Y.
R.I.
CONN.
PA.
N.J.
MD.
DEL.
VA.
N.C.
S.C.
GA.
RESERVED FOR INDIANS BY PROCLAMATION OF 1763
SPANISH LOUISIANA
NEW SPAIN
TEXAS
FLORIDA
CUBA
HAITI
JAMAICA
English
Spanish
Russian
French
Disputed claim
Proclamation Line, 1763

FIG. 97. By 1765 France had lost almost all her American territory. Spain and England controlled nearly the entire North American continent

THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR (1756–1763) IN EUROPE

In the meantime, the leading European nations were fighting a war at home, which lasted for seven years. France, Austria, Russia, Sweden, Saxony, and Spain fought against England and Prussia. In all their colonies, also, these European countries fought one another — in Asia as well as in North America. England sent more armies of regular soldiers to North America, and an important campaign was waged in northeastern Canada.

Four years after Braddock's defeat the English general Wolfe, in a night surprise attack, captured the French colonial town of Quebec (1759). The commanders of both armies were killed, Wolfe and the French leader, Montcalm.

In 1760 the English armies also captured Montreal. Then the long line of forts held by France was broken by the taking of Fort Frontenac, at the mouth of Lake Ontario, a fort where once long before La Salle had commanded. Fort Duquesne was retaken and named Fort Pitt in honor of William Pitt, prime minister of England. A whole line of border fortresses, one by one, surrendered to the English as the balance of warfare went steadily in their favor. The greater number of the English colonists, the larger armies, and the well-established settlements told against the small and scattered population of New France.

In 1763 the Seven Years' War ended, and the Treaty of Paris was signed. This meant also the end of the war in North America.

The terms of the treaty gave England all Canada except some islands off the coast of Newfoundland, which the French retained, and all the land east of the Mississippi, except a small strip around New Orleans, which they gave to Spain.

England was supreme in all that vast territory east of the Mississippi and north of the Lakes. By a secret treaty with France, not made public until 1764, Spain obtained the regions west of the Mississippi called Louisiana. But who was interested in those days in a territory so far away? Were not England's American possessions already of vast size in comparison with the size of any European country?

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

BALDWIN, JAMES. Discovery of the Old Northwest. American Book Company, New York, 1901. Connected stories of the early French explorations in the regions of the St. Lawrence River and Lake Champlain, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi River.

BALDWIN, JAMES. Conquest of the Old Northwest. American Book Company, New York, 1901. The story of the rivalry between England and France; continuation of *Discovery of the Old Northwest* down to 1832.

GORDY, W. F. Leaders in Making America. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1923. Chapters IX and X tell of the French exploration of the Old Northwest and the struggle between France and England.

PARKMAN, FRANCIS. La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1869. Stories of the western discoveries of the bold French explorers.

PARKMAN, FRANCIS. The Conspiracy of Pontiac. Little, Brown & Company, Boston. Parkman gives here the story of the French and Indian War, as well as the story of an Indian chief who tried to defeat the English.

PARKMAN, FRANCIS. Pioneers of France in the New World. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1906. The early story of the French settlements.

UNIT IV

AMERICA'S FIRST STEPS TOWARD DEMOCRACY

CHAPTER X

AMERICA'S FIRST STEPS TOWARD DEMOCRACY

One matter was of vital interest to the American colonists — their government. From the very beginning of the colonies their government played a most important part. It apportioned land among the settlers. It fixed what wages mechanics could be paid. In New England it even determined the kinds of dress people could wear and what they could do on Sundays. Thus in many cases the very lives and habits of the people depended upon the government.

THE STORY OF COLONIAL GOVERNMENT IS TOLD MORE FULLY IN VOLUME IV

We shall not understand the history of the first years in America unless we know how the colonists governed themselves. The story is a dramatic one filled with interesting episodes. Fascinating though the story is, we can tell it only in outline in this volume. In the next volume we take it up more fully.[1]

This volume of the history of American civilization is intended to be most of all a study of the economic life of the people and of the geographic setting in which our country developed. It is the story of the white man's conquest of the red man's continent.

To understand the country in which we live today we must first know how Europeans spread over the land and how they learned new ways of living. Nevertheless, to understand its *economic* and *social* development we should also know and keep in mind a brief outline of its *political* growth. To that sketch we turn in this chapter.

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[1] In the next volume of this series, *A History of American Government and Culture*, you will read more fully of the political events that accompanied the economic and social changes, of the struggle between the wealthy seaboard merchants and planters and the small farmers of the back country, the efforts of the colonists to build up their trade in spite of England's harsh laws, and the story of the Revolution itself.

HOW THE COLONIES WERE GOVERNED, 1607–1776

I. THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN TOWNS AND COUNTIES

In most of the Northern colonies, as you already know, farms were small and villages were close together. Since there were almost no large estates, the local government was centered about the town.

In the Southern colonies, where estates and farms were larger and people were scattered, the government was broadened to include the county.

In New England the town meeting and the church parish trained the colonists in self-government

In New England the questions of local government were decided at the town meeting. All persons who were permitted came to this meeting to vote. There local officers, such as the selectmen and constables (police), the keepers of the pound, etc., were elected; the construction of new roads and the repair of existing ones were discussed; and sizes of dwellings, amount of taxes to be paid for the running of the local community, and other important matters were the subjects for debate.

These New England town meetings gave the freemen leaders excellent practice in governing themselves. Responsibility was placed upon them to decide public questions; consequently the meetings resounded with discussion and debate. Do you wonder that the New England town meeting has been famous in history as a training school in self-government?

The church parishes also served to train the colonists in self-government. The freemen ran church affairs according to their own ideas and ideals. They elected the minister and decided all questions of church government, and if they did not like what the preacher said they were free to dismiss him and get another.

Thus in town meeting and in church parish the New Englanders were being trained in deciding questions for themselves.

In the Southern colonies, as we have said, the people were few and far between, scattered over large estates and farms. In the South the independent town meeting never came into exist-

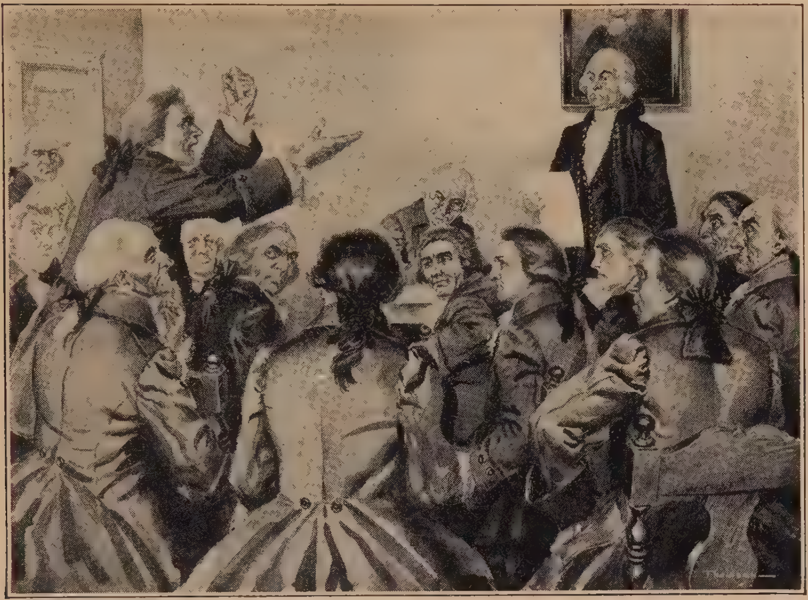

FIG. 98. In New England many of the questions of local government were decided at the town meeting. All those who were permitted to take part had the right to vote

ence. Local government was carried on by counties. The officials, such as the sheriff, the judges, and others, were not elected by the freemen of the county but were appointed by the royal governor. Thus the mass of the freemen received less training in *local* self-government in the Southern colonies than in the Northern.

II. THE GOVERNMENT OF THE COLONY AS A WHOLE

Each of the thirteen colonies had a general government, which decided all public questions for the entire colony. This general government consisted of a governor and an assembly, the latter being made up of men who were sent as representatives from the towns in the colony.

How the governor was chosen

In the thirteen colonies there were three different ways of choosing the governor. They can be remembered as they are outlined on the following page:

1. In the *Democratic Colonies* — Rhode Island and Connecticut. The governor was elected by the freemen of the colony.
2. In the *Proprietary Colonies* — Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland. The governor was appointed by the proprietor, to whom the land of the colony had originally been granted by the king.
3. In the *Royal Colonies* — Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia. The governor was appointed by the king of England.

Thus we see that in only two of the colonies was the powerful governor elected by the voters themselves. In the other eleven he was appointed by one person, either the king or the proprietor.

The members of the assembly were elected by the voters. As we have said, they represented the towns in the lawmaking body of the colony.

Conflicts between Governors and Assemblies

During colonial times two important political questions were raised: (1) how the governor should be chosen; (2) how the governing power should be divided between the governor and the assembly. Throughout the entire 150 years of colonial life there was almost constant conflict over these two questions.

The governors were usually loyal to the king or the proprietor who had appointed them and insisted, therefore, on making laws, levying taxes, appointing officials, and apportioning land. Now these were the very things which the representatives of the people themselves said were their rights. In fact, the founders of several of the colonies had emigrated from England to obtain just that kind of freedom.

So there was an almost constant struggle between the assemblies and the governors. In some of the colonies the king and his governors kept the power much of the time. But as the colonies became more thickly populated and the colonists more determined on self-government, the assembly gained some control over taxation and other important matters. In the next volume we shall read of many spirited contests between the assemblies and the governors.

There were Two Other Conflicts over Government in the Colonies, 1607–1776

In addition to the struggle between the governors and the assemblies, there were two other serious conflicts. First, the colonists were quarreling amongst themselves over the control of their local governments. Second, the ruling classes in the colonies were quarreling with the British government over the power to rule themselves. In the conflicts which agitated our forefathers the men who were fighting one another for the control of their affairs at home were also at odds with the British government — the king and Parliament.

The First Conflict: the Struggle within the Colonies for Control of the Local Government

Throughout colonial times, from north to south, the colonists were divided into two rather well-defined groups. One was the small body of wealthy people who controlled the government of the colonies. The other was a great mass of small farmers, mechanics, servants, and slaves, who were being ruled.

In the South and in some of the Northern colonies, the political leaders were planters holding large estates. In the New England colonies the merchants, shipowners, and church leaders controlled affairs. In each case it was a small but powerful group of well-to-do people who honestly believed that they were born to live better than their neighbors and to govern rather than be governed. Many had a genuine contempt for those whom they called the lower classes. The "gentlemen" who belonged to the "upper classes" were firmly of the opinion that the "lower classes" were meant to labor industriously and to obey and support the leisure class. They sincerely believed that it was right for them to pass laws deciding who should vote, who should pay taxes and how much, what the "lower classes" should wear, and even what wages they should receive.

The mass of people — the "lower classes"— were far more numerous but much less powerful than their "gentlemen" rulers. They were divided into several groups. Most of them were small farmers and planters, mechanics and other wage-earners, or artisans and petty officials of the towns. For the most part, these men were honest, hard-working, and independent-minded. Those who owned enough property and belonged to the church were allowed to vote and had some slight influence.

The indentured white servants, who were working off their terms of servitude with the object of becoming freemen, were a step lower still on the social ladder. Their lot was hard but not hopeless, for once their freedom was earned they might take up small farms of their own or become handicraftsmen or wage-earning laborers in the towns.

The Negro slaves were at the bottom of the "lower class" with no hope of ever bettering their condition. They were to be at the will of white masters all their lives.

Included in the mass of the people were the frontiersmen, who were clearing the wilderness in the back country. They were constantly at war with their foes — the wilderness, the Indians, and the aristocrats of the seaboard. The sturdy English or Scotch-Irish yeomen of the backwoods were changing into sturdy American frontiersmen.

Thus you see that the division of the colonists into classes was made largely on the basis of money, possessions, and family position. The few members of the wealthy class insisted upon their right to govern the more numerous "lower class."

For 150 years there were scenes of conflict between aristocrats and democrats

From the very first years in America the mass of the people struggled against the control of the wealthy property owners. They increasingly demanded more power to govern themselves but were hampered in their efforts by poverty and by centuries of European tradition, which had always drawn sharp class lines.

In the next volume you will read of many thrilling scenes of the struggle for a more democratic government in the Northern as well as in the Southern colonies.

One example only will be briefly outlined here. It is the story of the struggle of the wealthy landowners and the poorer people in North Carolina.

In North Carolina many of the wealthy landowners were friends of the king's royal governor and were intent upon holding their power. They charged the poor farmers unfair legal fees, collected heavy taxes from people unable to pay, freed themselves and their friends from taxation, and seized large amounts of land and built up large fortunes.

The poorer hill people were given little voice in making or enforcing the laws. They were under the power of government officials sent out to collect taxes and manage affairs. The Westerners resented bitterly such treatment, and organized a rebellion in 1771 in order to protect their rights as Englishmen. The governor led an army to put down the frontier revolt, and as the untrained backwoodsmen were no match for the governor's trained troops the rebellion was crushed. For the time being the resistance was ended, but the real question at issue was not settled.

It is important to remember that this class conflict went on within every settlement. In every period of American colonial history, in every colony, the same thing was happening — the powerful, the wealthy, and the well-born gained control of the government and were carefully guarding their possession of it. Bitter feeling between "upper classes" and "lower classes" deepened as time went on. We shall see the outcome of the struggle, and in the next volume we shall be able to notice how it influenced our history.

THE SECOND CONFLICT: THE STRUGGLE WITH ENGLAND FOR AN INDEPENDENT GOVERNMENT

While the colonists were disagreeing among themselves for control of their local government they were also struggling against the British king and Parliament.

The ruling class in England in the 1600's and 1700's was made up chiefly of landowners and wealthy merchants. From your study of Chapter III and of *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* you remember that a small group of middle-class landowners and business men had built up substantial fortunes through trade and handicrafts. So powerful had these men become that they were able to send to the House of Commons larger numbers of representatives than any other group in England. As a result Parliament made laws largely in accordance with the interests of the landlords and the business men.

Many of these men had invested their capital in the companies which had founded the American colonies; consequently they were keenly interested in controlling the colonies, so that they could continue to make profits out of them. The king of England, the members of his councils, and his Parliament agreed in this point of view. It seldom occurred to these people to consider the wishes of the people who were actually settling the colonies. In their minds the colonists were to grow tobacco, to raise other products, to ship furs and lumber to England, and in general to make profits for British investors and taxpayers.

Naturally, the American colonists did not agree with this point of view. They had left England to increase their own fortunes, to earn a better living, to worship and to govern themselves as they pleased. The leaders in the American colonies, therefore, thought of themselves first and of the English investors afterwards.

It is small wonder that from the beginning the young colonies and the mother country clashed. No sooner had the long line of settlement become firmly planted than trouble began. Many causes of friction were found.

The British Parliament passed Laws restricting Colonial Navigation, Trade, and Manufacture

Most of the friction arose over trade. No sooner did the Virginia planters build up a flourishing tobacco trade than the English business men sought to control it. No sooner had the New England shippers built up a fine merchant marine and started profitable trading than English merchants tried to monopolize shipping. The infant manufacturing industries in the colonies were checked because English merchants were afraid of colonial rivals. Laws were passed which favored British traders and manufacturers and seriously hampered colonial planters, farmers, craftsmen, and shippers.

1. *The navigation and trade laws.* As early as 1651 the British government began to pass acts restricting American trade. The

first act found favor with the colonists, for it declared that only British ships manned by British subjects were to be allowed to carry goods into and out of American colonial ports.

A later provision of 1663, however, provided that the colonists ship all their tobacco, tar, pitch, turpentine, masts, and certain other articles *to England only.* Likewise any goods going to the American colonies had to pass through English ports, whence they could be reshipped to America upon the payment of a duty. Furthermore, rum, molasses, and sugar brought in from the West Indies were placed under a heavy duty, which threatened the profitable "triangular trade."

2. *The laws restricting colonial manufactures and banking.* As early as 1699 there were many spinning and weaving shops and many master craftsmen in the colonies, and large amounts of woolen cloth and garments were being shipped abroad. British business men were afraid that the growth of American manufacturing would harm their own trade; so in 1699 representatives in Parliament began to pass laws forbidding the exportation and even the manufacture of certain products in the colonies.

In 1699 the colonists were forbidden to export woolen goods. They were even forbidden to sell their products to other colonies or to other towns in the same colony. The English business men hoped thus to drive out the colonial wool business. An important hat-making business had grown up in the colonies, and in 1732 the Parliament passed a law which barred American felt hats from export into England. In 1750 another law was passed forbidding the production of iron goods. The object of this law was to compel the American colonies to buy tools, implements, weapons, and other iron goods from the mother country.

Some of these laws actually helped the colonies; for example, the Navigation Act that gave British ships a monopoly of the carrying trade to and from America. Other laws, too, helped their trade more than they injured it. Those laws which seemed to the colonists to be unfair were not obeyed in many cases. Because of this there was much smuggling of forbidden goods. On the whole, however, the colonists felt decidedly injured by these laws, and friction between the colonists and the mother country steadily increased.

THE CONFLICT SHARPENED AFTER 1760

In 1760 a new king, George III, came to the throne of England. Three years later (1763) the Seven Years' War in Europe and the French and Indian War in North America closed with a complete victory for England. This left the British freer to deal with their colonists. Almost immediately the new government under George III decided on an even more strict control of the American colonies. Four important steps were taken between 1763 and 1765.

First (1763), British officials began a more thorough enforcement of the trade and navigation laws. Smugglers were dealt with more severely. Second (1763), the colonists were forbidden to settle more western land without the permission of the King's officials. Third (1764), new additional taxes were imposed on articles imported into the colonies. The most objectionable of these taxes were those which laid a heavy tariff on sugar and molasses brought into America from the West Indies. Fourth (1765), a Stamp Tax was imposed. All new printed matter had to be stamped, and legal documents had to be drawn up on stamped paper, the cost varying from a penny to several pounds.

THE COLONISTS PROTESTED AGAINST "TAXATION WITHOUT REPRESENTATION"

These new acts of Parliament united the colonists from North to South as nothing had done before. The Stamp Act, especially, affected nearly all colonists alike. In one colony after another protests were made. New England was in a ferment. Merchants, mechanics, lawyers, and ministers rose in loud opposition to the laws. There were public meetings and even riots.

In the Virginia Assembly, Patrick Henry, a patriotic young lawyer, made a fiery speech and secured the passage of strong resolutions denouncing the new laws. In his speech Henry is said to have shouted, "Tarquin and Cæsar each had his Brutus; Charles the First his Cromwell; and George the Third . . ." "Treason! Treason! Treason!" echoed from every part of the House. Without faltering for an instant, and striking a prouder attitude, Mr. Henry finished, with the most thrilling emphasis, "... may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it!"

Throughout the colonies spread the news of the Virginia Resolutions. Many of the more cautious and wealthy colonists considered the resolutions treasonable, but powerful groups of patriots approved them. In Massachusetts, New York, and Virginia hearty approval was given by lawyers, artisans, and laborers, and by a few prominent statesmen.

The laboring classes were particularly violent in their demonstrations, however, and often took matters into their own hands. City streets were bright with torches and rang with the mob cries of those opposed to the Stamp Act. Effigies of government officials were hanged and burned. Pledges were signed by the patriots, refusing to buy English goods until the acts were repealed. So powerful was the uprising against the laws that in 1766 the Stamp Act was repealed.

Yet the English Parliament had not learned to change its dealings with the colonists. Within a year new laws, known as the Townshend Acts, were passed. These placed duties on wine, oil, fruits, glass, paper, lead, dyes, and tea.

Again there was a loud protest from the colonists. Riots took place in several colonies. The streets of towns were crowded with people discussing and denouncing the tyrannical acts of Parliament.

To add to the difficulties British troops had been sent to America, and the colonists were ordered to quarter the soldiers in their homes. Here and there riots broke out between the people and the regulars.

The "Boston Massacre." In Boston on the night of March 5, 1770, occurred a tragedy that fanned the flames of rebellion throughout the colonies. British soldiers, angered by the ridicule of a street crowd, fired upon it, killing five people and wounding several more. Word of the "massacre," as the Americans called it, was sent quickly from colony to colony. The whole seaboard was angered by it.

The "Boston Tea Party," 1773. In 1770 the English Parliament repealed all the taxes of 1767 (the Townshend Acts) except the tax on tea. This law required the colonists to pay a tax of three pence on each pound of tea brought into America. Again came protests, and colonial leaders themselves smuggled tea into American ports. The British then permitted their East India Company to sell its tea at a price lower than colonial tea importers could. More protests arose, and finally, one night in December, 1773, a crowd of Bostonians, masquerading as Indians, destroyed a whole cargo of British tea in the harbor of Boston. The same sort of protest went on in other ports.

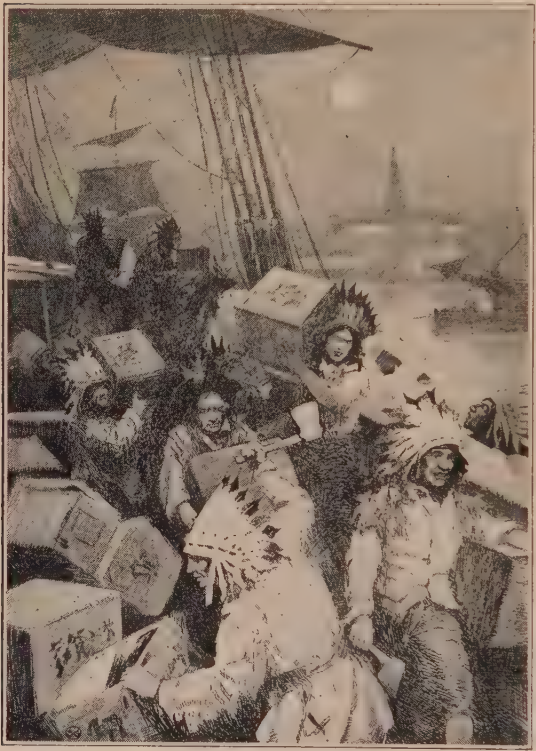

FIG. 99. In 1773 business men of Massachusetts, disguised as Indians, dumped a shipload of British tea into Boston Harbor. This "tea party" was a protest against England's taxation and also against the direct sale of tea to the colonists for less money than the colonial tea importers could afford to sell it

To punish the colonists, Boston Harbor was closed to all trade; local governments and legislatures were ordered to disband; and British officials were told to assume strict control over all public affairs in Massachusetts.

From then on the Revolutionary movement gained new force. *Committees of Correspondence* were formed for the purpose of keeping in close touch with patriots in the other colonies. These committees did much toward uniting the restless independent patriotic groups, scattered up and down the seaboard, as news of conditions in every colony flew back and forth from committee to committee.

The colonial leaders called a general convention to unite the colonies and to petition Parliament for relief. The *First Continental Congress*, as the convention was called, remained in session in Philadelphia for about a month. Vigorous debates were held, since the representatives were by no means united in their feeling toward England. Many of them were aristocrats, who opposed the violence of the patriots and the laboring people.

At length, however, the patriots won over most of the conservative members of the convention. It was decided to refuse British goods and to resist the British laws. By the spring of 1775, due largely to the work of the Committees of Correspondence, of the colonial assemblies, and of the Continental Congress, eleven of the thirteen colonies were closely banded together against Britain's unfair taxation.

The American Revolutionary War began with the Battle of Lexington and Concord, April 19, 1775

"Stand your ground! Don't fire unless fired upon; but if they mean to have a war, let it begin here."

This is the famous command which Captain Parker is supposed to have given to his untrained Massachusetts militia on the morning of April 19, 1775. Lined up on the village green in Lexington, Massachusetts, was a little group of farmers. These farmers were going to oppose hundreds of British soldiers who were on their way to destroy colonial ammunition stored at the near-by village of Concord.

Parker had his wish. A shot was fired at Lexington and in the skirmish which followed — the first skirmish of the Revolution — several colonists were killed.

War had indeed begun, and it was not to end for more than eight years. On July 3, 1775, George Washington took command of the Continental Army. From the beginning the war was fought against tremendous odds. There was no strong central government in the colonies, and Congress had great difficulty in raising money to finance the war. The soldiers were ill-equipped and often had to go without pay or even food. Even public opinion was not whole-heartedly with the revolutionary cause, more than one fifth of the people remaining loyal to England. However, in spite of all these difficulties, a small body of patriots drew up the Declaration of Independence and signed it on July 4, 1776.

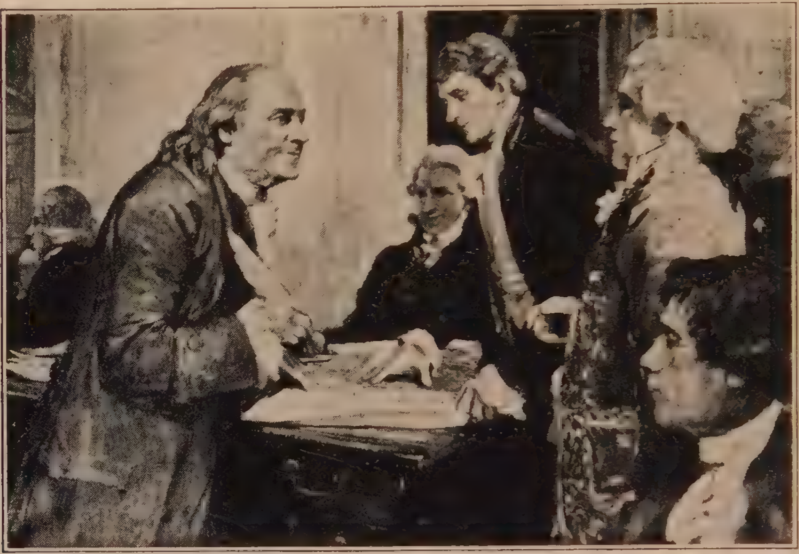

FIG. 100. Benjamin Franklin signing the Declaration of Independence. (From a painting by Stanley M. Arthurs)

The story of the war itself will be given in the next volume. On October 19, 1781, the British general surrendered, and the last important engagement of the War for American Independence had been fought.

THE TREATY OF PARIS, SIGNED BY ENGLAND AND THE "UNITED STATES," 1783

Although the British general had surrendered on October 19, 1781, the treaty of peace was not signed by the English and the Americans until September, 1783. Three Americans who were in Europe — Benjamin Franklin, John Jay, and John Adams — began negotiations with representatives of the British late in 1781. Finally, after nearly two years' discussion the Treaty of Paris was signed. This acknowledged the independence of the colonies — now recognized as the United States — and defined the boundaries of the new country.

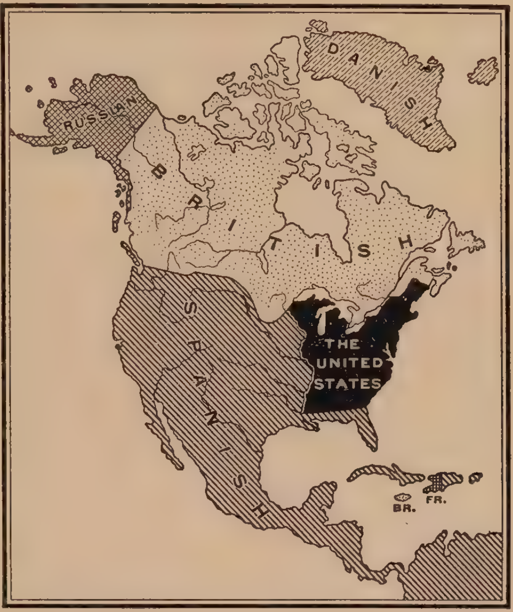

Fig. 101. North America in 1783

The map of figure 101 shows how the land of North America was divided among England, Russia, Spain, and the new United States. The United States was to extend, east and west, from the Atlantic seaboard to the Mississippi River; north and south, from the Great Lakes to the 31st parallel of latitude. Great Britain was to keep Canada. She has done so to the present day. Florida and the land west of the Mississippi River were to be given back to Spain. Russia, of course, retained her ownership of Alaska. France, at that time, held no land at all in North America.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

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UNIT V

LIFE IN THE NEW STATES AND THE GREAT WESTWARD MOVEMENT

LIFE IN THE NEW STATES AND THE GREAT WESTWARD MOVEMENT

By 1783 the long period of establishing a nation has been completed. The thirteen English colonies have become the United States of America, an independent nation of nearly 4,000,000 people. The territory actually settled is relatively small, merely the narrow plain from the Appalachians to the Atlantic Ocean. But the territory which belongs to the nation is large — an imperial domain stretching from the Atlantic to the Mississippi River, from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico. Already, however, thousands of the new Americans are traversing that wilderness, blazing trails, making roads, and pushing the frontier down the westward slopes of the Appalachians. They are beginning a century-long, spectacular conquest of a continent. To that story we turn next.

Remember, therefore, that Unit V deals primarily with the land history of our country; how the people cleared the continent, established farms, and built villages and towns and cities.

In Chapter XI we shall consider how the planters and farmers of the South, and the merchants, shippers, artisans, and farmers of the North were living at the close of the American Revolution. Thus we shall set the stage for the drama of the westward movement.

In Chapter XII we shall see the first settlements extending beyond the mountains. Again "geography" determines the routes of the westward-bound settlers, up the river valleys, and through the gaps in the mountains. More geography! The location of the settlements, the kinds of crops raised, the kinds of work which the people did, and the relative prosperity of the farmers, the merchants, and the artisans of the city — all depended on geography.

In Chapters XIII and XIV we shall study the last phases of the westward movement — the torture of the last crossing of the Western mountains and the filling in of the cattle plains and mining regions.

Finally, in Chapter XV, a quick backward glance brings out in full perspective the chief outlines of the startling century of conquest of the land.

CHAPTER XI

LIFE IN THE STATES AFTER THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

1783 . . . Peace had come to America. The Treaty of Paris had been signed, and thirteen independent states faced the world alone. No longer could they rely upon England for protection; no longer need they pay allegiance and tribute to a European monarch — but neither could they continue to blame him for their troubles. From then on they must fight their own battles.

What were the conditions of living in the new states at the conclusion of the war for freedom?

We have already learned how the colonists battled the wilderness for a bare living in the earliest days. We have read how they began to master the wilderness, changing their rude shelters for comfortable dwelling houses. And we have seen how, as this happened, they changed in their ways of thinking and feeling and became less English and more American.

These Americans built up their own industries and farming. Their settlements of rough log huts changed to busy small towns, where the streets were lined with brick, stone, or planed timber buildings. Already Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and Charleston had grown into large towns and had become busy centers of trade and shipping.

In Chapter VII we read of the sharp differences which existed in 1700 between the New Englanders and the Southerners. The people who emigrated from England were of many types. Some, the strict Puritans, settled in New England. Others, many of the easy-going, pleasure-loving Englishmen who came to America to be free from political troubles or for other reasons, settled in the South. In Chapter VII you read also how geographic factors were changing the settlers even in the 1600's. Different kinds of civilization were slowly appearing along the Atlantic coast.

DIFFERENCES IN "GEOGRAPHY" AND DIFFERENT KINDS OF PEOPLE CREATED THREE DIFFERENT SECTIONS

In 1783 the States stretched for nearly a thousand miles along the Atlantic coast. From languid, semitropical Georgia to the bleak coast of Maine, settlements dotted the coastal plain. Of course there were differences in ways of living almost as great as the differences in climate. It hardly seemed that the swampy rice fields of Georgia were a part of the same country as the chilly, pine forests of Maine. To be sure, most of the settlers in all the colonies were Englishmen, yet differences had grown up between the sections which were as plainly to be recognized as the likenesses.

For convenience the new States in 1783 might be divided into three sections,— the Southern, the Middle, and the Northern,— in each of which the ways of living were noticeably different. There were also marked differences in temperature and in the fertility of the soil and the "lay of the land"; hence the farming was different.

I. LIFE IN THE SOUTH

HOW THE WELL-TO-DO PLANTERS LIVED

Throughout the South the land of the Atlantic plain was fairly smooth and level. Great stretches were planted in tobacco, rice, indigo, or cotton. During much of the year a clear blue sky smiled upon the land. The air was never very sharp and biting, even in winter. In summer it was warm indeed. Clear rivers sparkled through the fields, trees leaned to mirror themselves in the water, and patches of woodland stretched to right and left of the streams.

In the cultivated fields slow-moving Negro slaves sang a mournful chant as they picked the broad tobacco leaves. On the slopes of occasional hillsides stood great white-pillared mansions, where the planters lived with their families. Behind these houses straggled the small unpainted cabins of the slaves — a poor village compared with the imposing dwelling of the master.

The large plantations were, in truth, still small settlements in themselves. Many handicrafts helped to make the estates self-supporting. Cloth was spun, rough shoes were cobbled, and candles, soap, and many other household necessities were manufactured. The Negro cabins and the small amount of furniture in them were made from timber cut on the plantation.

The ladies and gentlemen, however, were not content with such rude products of their estate. They imported from England and France the silks, velvets, laces, and gold braid for their clothing as well as their silver plate, crystal, and other household furnishings.

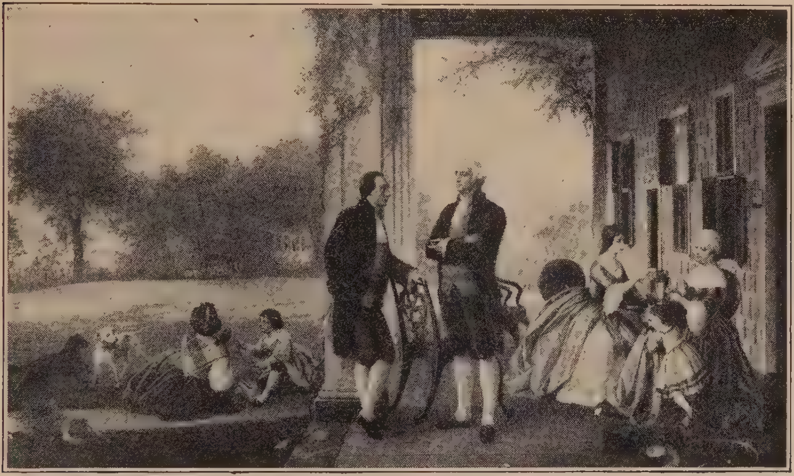

FIG. 102. George Washington was a Virginian and the owner of a plantation. Here he is shown entertaining the Marquis de Lafayette. (From a painting by T. P. Rossiter)

Most of the wealthy planters kept fine houses indeed. The mansions themselves were of two or three stories. Most of them were of wood, but a few were of fine Portland marble obtained from England. There were generally a dozen or more living rooms in the mansion, whose very high ceilings gave an appearance of spaciousness and dignity. The furniture was the product of expert craftsmen.

The plantation-owners in the newly founded American States were still living a gay life. Their homes were centers of entertainment the year round, where guests amused themselves by playing cards, dancing, dining on good food, and drinking fine wine. The sportsmen indulged eagerly in cockfighting, gambling, horse racing, and hunting to hounds. Life was generally quite "joyous, light-hearted, and hilarious." Only on Sunday was there strict sober conduct.

Consider the ways of living, for example, of George Washington and his family. We could ask no better example of the life of his time. On the banks of the Potomac River he owned and managed the fine estate of Mount Vernon. Washington's habits and tastes were those of the wealthy plantation-owners. He was an excellent horseman, fond of racing and hunting, and in his diary he makes frequent mention of playing cards. For example: "At home all day at cards,— it snowing."

In the month of January, 1769, while Washington was still in early manhood he recorded on twelve different days that he had gone fox-hunting. There were many notes in his diary like this: "Went to the Barbacue at Accatinck." In the month of March of the same year, Washington recorded that he dined with friends 17 days out of the 31.

He was a gallant gentleman who loved fine clothes. His apparel came direct to him from his London tailor, and he demanded that it be always of the very latest fashion. Although he was no winebibber, as some historians have hinted, Washington indulged in wines and other liquors as did all wealthy planters quite as a matter of course. A diarist of his day remarked that Washington "loved to make a procrastinated [leisurely] dinner." Washington described in his diary how, on a certain day, he

> Went to a Ball at Alexandria, where Musick and Dancing was the chief Entertainment. However, in a convenient Room detachd for the purpose abounded great plenty of Bread and Butter, some Biscuits with Tea, and Coffee which the Drinkers of coud not Distinguish from Hot water sweetened. Be it remembered that pocket handkerchiefs servd the purposes of Table Cloths and Napkins and that no Appolgies were made for either. . . .
>
> I shall therefore distinguish this Ball by the Stile and title of the Bread and Butter Ball.[1]

Mount Vernon, the Washington home, was well furnished. There were fine mahogany tea tables, card tables, settees, four-poster beds — all from the shops of expert cabinetmakers. The family dined from rare silver plate and English china, and the walls of the rooms were hung with portraits of the family and with hunting scenes, which latter showed the master's love for outdoor sports.

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[1] John C. Fitzpatrick (Editor), *The Diaries of George Washington, 1748–1749*, p. 126 Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1925.

The kitchens of the estate were hung with a vast number and many kinds of utensils — metal pans, copper kettles, stone bottles, jugs, and mugs. In the sheds were grindstones, knives, planes, saws, augers, reaping hooks, hayrakes, shovels, spades, plows, sickles, scythes, harness, and all the other implements of a good farmer.

Negro Slavery after the Revolution

As we have seen, the life of the South centered about the plantations. There was little trade and industry except for the shipment of the crops which the land yielded. Farming was, of course, the occupation of most of the people.

After the War of the Revolution slavery in the South grew more rapidly. The rice, tobacco, indigo, and cotton plantations needed large numbers of strong laborers, and the Negroes who were brought to the colonies from torrid Africa were better able to bear long hours of work in a hot southern sun than were white men.

Furthermore, slave labor was cheap. A Negro slave could be bought in those days for an average cost of about $300. On the average the slave's working life was from 15 to 30 years. In this way a slave cost his master under $20 a year plus the cost of feeding, clothing, and sheltering him. There was the further consideration that a large number of slaves gave a family a certain degree of social standing. Thus the wealthy planters, who were able to buy Negroes in large numbers, bought cheap labor to work their huge estates at large profit.

So slavery grew in the Southern states. The English, the Spanish, and the Dutch trading companies had brought great numbers of Negroes into America during the 1700's. The kings of England and Spain received one fourth of the profit from the trade, and so they were interested in helping it to flourish. At the outbreak of the Revolution 200 English ships were being used for the slave trade alone. Historians have stated that Liverpool owed much of its prosperity to the profits made from transporting black men from Africa and selling them in America. Shipping towns like Newport, Rhode Island, and many other New England ports were growing rich from the triangular rum-molasses-slave trade.

By 1775 it was estimated that there were some 500,000 black people in the colonies. At that time there were 2,750,000 people all together. Thus the slaves made up nearly one sixth of the entire population of the American colonies. In Virginia, Maryland, the Carolinas, and Georgia the Negroes far outnumbered the white people. Even in Delaware and Pennsylvania 20 per cent of the people were Negro slaves, and in New York State, 15 per cent. Many Southerners were greatly concerned at the dangerous increase in Negro population and protested against the trade. Before 1808 all but three Southern states had forbidden slave importation.

In New England, owing to the importance of handicraftsmen, slaves were not needed. Nevertheless, at least 2 per cent of the people were of Negro blood.

Many of the restrictions placed at that time upon both slaves and indentured servants were those which had grown up through years of custom. Some of them remind us of what we read in *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* about the restrictions placed upon the serfs under the manorial system. (See pages 25–26 and 28–29.)

The Negro was the property of his white master just as were the house and land of the plantation. No slave could own property except with his master's permission. It was against the law to teach him to read and write, and he was not allowed to possess weapons or even to send signals by blowing horns or beating drums. Judges refused to admit the testimony of a Negro against a white man in the law courts. After a certain hour he was not allowed outside his quarters, nor could he and his companions meet together at night unless a white person were present. Even in self-defense he could not strike a white person without receiving a harsh punishment, nor could he marry without the consent of his master.

Of course the slaves broke the laws again and again. At times they were not even aware that they were doing so; at other times small numbers of them were driven to rebellion against their condition.

Many plantation-owners were kind to their slaves, feeling a deep sense of responsibility for their comfort and welfare. Stories are told of household servants who lovingly reared all the children of the master's family and in return were regarded with affection, and of planters' wives who helped to nurse sick slaves. Kind-hearted masters occasionally gave particularly good slaves their freedom, and by 1790 there were 60,000 free Negroes in the United States.

Both in the Northern and in the Southern colonies the system of indentured servants had not disappeared even with the growth of the black-slave trade. *The Diary of John Harrower, 1773–1776*, tells how a poor schoolmaster bound himself as a tutor to a wealthy family:

> Wednesday, 26th (Jan., 1774). This day I being reduced to the last shilling I hade was obliged to engage to go to Virginia for four years as a schoolmaster for Bedd, Board, washing and five pound during the whole time. . . .
>
> Tuesday, 23d (April, 1776). At noon rode to Town, got the Newspapers and settled with M^{r}. Porter for teaching his two sons 12 M^{os} when he verry genteely allowed me £6 for them, besides a present of two silk vests and two pair of Nankeen Breeches last summer and a Gallon of rum at Christenmass, both he and M^{rs}. Porter being extreamly well satisfied with what I hade done to them.[1]

SOUTHERN TOWNS

Since there was little manufacturing and trade among the Southern states, the towns and cities of the South were small and unimportant. An American traveler who made the wearying trip from Maryland to Georgia shortly after the Revolution found the landscape dotted with small farms, while here and there a huge estate covered as much as an 8000-acre tract. There were no great cities and few towns and villages.

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[1] Reprinted by permission of the publishers, The Arthur H. Clark Company, from Phillips, *Plantation and Frontier Documents.*

Let us accompany this traveler as he journeys southward from Maryland through Virginia and the Carolinas to Georgia.

In Maryland we pass through Baltimore, a thriving port of perhaps 13,000 people. The streets of this "large" center are narrow and unpaved like the highway over which the coach has jounced all day. There are no street lights. The streets straggle out in a somewhat haphazard fashion. Along the main streets there are new and handsome residences. One can find many kinds of social entertainment, however, both in Baltimore and in Annapolis. The latter city, like Baltimore, is a considerable center of trade.

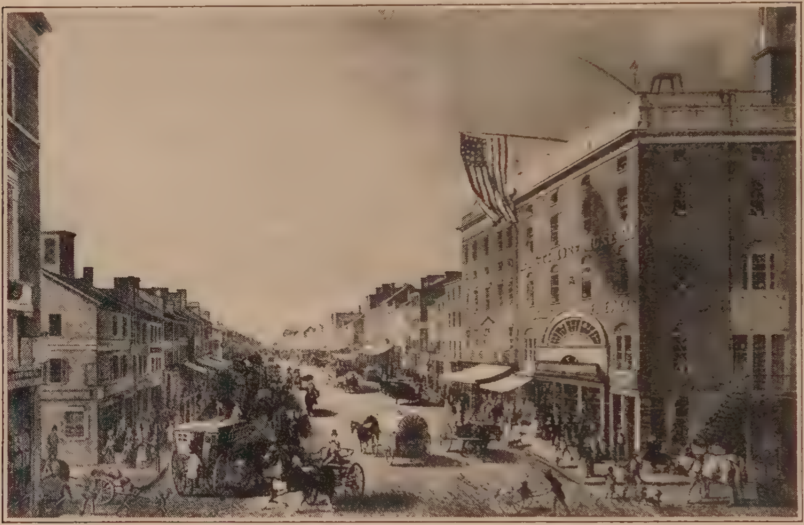

FIG. 103. The main street of Baltimore in 1830. While Baltimore grew rapidly after 1800, by 1830 there were still no street lights; and, as you see, the main thoroughfare was still a dirt road

Southward we jog with the leisurely traveler through Maryland and into Virginia. We reach the state capital, Williamsburg, the first important town. It is a pleasant little town, with wooden houses and unpaved streets. At one end of the main street is the College of William and Mary, and at the other end, the governor's palace, the handsomest structure in Virginia.

About 100 years before our visit to Williamsburg, the first Southern college was built there and named the College of William and Mary, in honor of the King and Queen of England. Although it was founded in 1693, it still, at the time of our visit, appears a poor enough college with only a few professors, most of whom are ministers from near-by churches.

William and Mary, like Harvard and Yale, was built as a training school for "ministers of the gospel." Poor as the college is, it is the best in the South. It has not flourished as have the Northern colleges of Yale and Harvard, for wealthy planters send their older sons to Europe or to New England to be educated. The younger brothers and sisters of the family must be content with governesses or tutors at home.

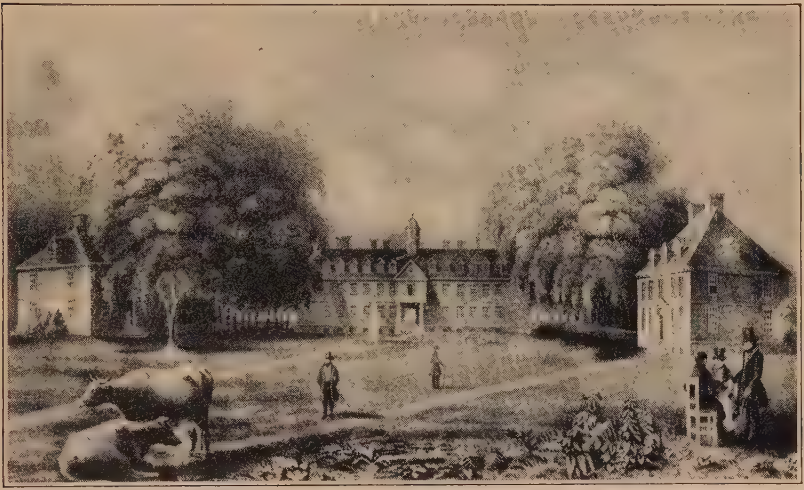

FIG. 104. The College of William and Mary in Virginia. (From a lithograph)

As for the poorer children, they receive no education, for there are almost no public schools. A kind-hearted plantation-owner may undertake to teach his poor neighbors to read and write, but, on the whole, there is little interest in education throughout the South. People read or write little during their leisure moments, and it is a common saying that "a Virginia gentleman gets his learning from conversation rather than from books."

Williamsburg is important not only because of the College of William and Mary but even more because of the fact that it was the political center of the Virginia colony and, until 1779, of the state of Virginia. Here the colonial governors lived, laws were passed, and the Supreme Court held its sessions. It was in Williamsburg that Patrick Henry made his fiery speech about which you have read (see pages 246 and 247).

But now the state capital has moved to Richmond, and Williamsburg is fast becoming just a social center for the great planters whose homes lie scattered about it for several miles.

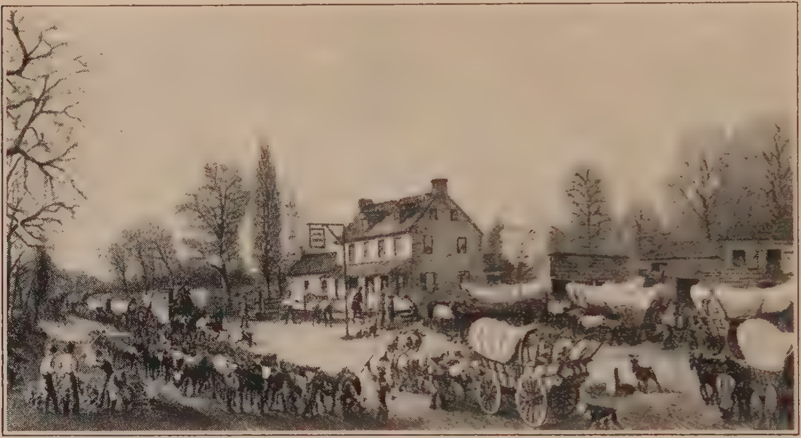

FIG. 105. A road tavern in the Southern states about 1800. The Conestogas seem to show that the road was one which led into pioneer territory. (From the collections of the Maryland Historical Society)

We leave Williamsburg with our traveler after a few days of rest and entertainment. As we continue southward we ask the coachman how long it will take to reach Jamestown, where the first colony was made. The coachman, a native of Virginia, shakes his head and remarks that we can never reach old Jamestown; it is no more. A disaster, we imagine. But the coachman assures us that the colony has "just naturally disappeared." There is nothing left but the relics of a few of the first English dwellings in America.

The journey southward from Virginia is pleasant enough. There are very few large towns, but plantation-owners are very hospitable. In fact, our fellow traveler naturally prefers to spend a night in the home of a Virginian rather than to brave the possibility of a bad night at a tavern in one of the small towns.

Norfolk, however, is now a busy little town of several thousand people, and one might well pass a day or two there.

The carriage bumps and jolts southward into North Carolina. At this stage of the trip we have been on the road some two months. In North Carolina, even more than in Virginia, we have to depend upon the hospitality of the large estates, and night after night we stop our coach near sundown and are welcomed at the gate of a Southern mansion.

Royal entertainment is offered to guests who have traveled so far and who have so much news of the Northern states and of the towns at which they stopped along the way. The plantation-owners assure us that we did well to honor them with our company, for in all North Carolina there are only six small towns. Wilmington, although nearly 100 years old, is still a village. As in Virginia, the population of North Carolina is scattered over the plantations of the state.

Now we are in South Carolina. This state boasts one city, Charleston, at the time of our visit. With barely 15,000 people Charleston is the real social and trading center of the South and is nearly as large as either Boston or Baltimore. To be sure the streets are unpaved, but so are they throughout most of our new America. The coach drives on into the city on a rainy afternoon. Many times we tired passengers fear that the horses will founder in the mudholes. However, we are accustomed to such inconveniences.

The coach drives up the main street of Charleston. Handsome brick public buildings line both sides. There are likewise beautiful churches and residences, which have been built in the simple, dignified style which makes the buildings of many of the colonial towns so pleasing.

We spend two weeks with our cousins in Charleston. During that time we find ourselves in the midst of a gay social life, full of racing and dancing. In the homes of the citizens there are daughters who play the harpsichord, the spinet, or the harp. They are members of the St. Cecilia Society, an organization of people interested in music, which gives frequent programs at which professional musicians are the leading performers. Most people in Charleston seem to enjoy good music and the theater.

Amateur plays are given in the homes of wealthy people. Young people recently returned from study in London love to tell that they have been regular "first nighters" at the Drury Lane and Covent Garden theaters. The local historian of Charleston informs us that the first professional drama in America was given on the boards of a Charleston theater in 1734. One of the issues of the *South Carolina Gazette*, in 1734, bears out the statement:

> On Friday the 24th instant, in the Court Room, will be attempted a tragedy called "The Orphan, or the Unhappy Marriage." Tickets will be delivered out on Tuesday next, at Mr. Shepheard's at 40 cents each.[1]

With many good-bys we continue our uncomfortable trip southward. In after years we often recall what a lively, prosperous, cultured, American city Charleston was at the close of the Revolution.

At length, after four months on the highway, we weary travelers see the end of our journey in sight. We have reached Savannah, the largest city in Georgia. To be sure it is but a village of 1200 people, situated on the Savannah River, but it is larger than any of the other villages of the state.

II. LIFE IN THE MIDDLE STATES

North of Maryland, one found Small Farms and Growing Towns

Having had glimpses of the life of the South, let us compare it with that of the middle states — Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York. Suppose we make this journey with guides who lived at the time which we are studying. They have left us their old diaries and journals, newspapers, and reports. We shall try to draw a picture of the changes which have occurred since the early 1700's.

First let us wander with an English guide who traveled through Pennsylvania.

> The next day I set out for Philadelphia, distant about thirty-six miles, and arrived there in the evening. The country all the way bore

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[1] Other historians maintain that the first professional theatrical performance in America was given in Williamsburg, Virginia, September 5, 1752. Still other investigators claim that a play was given by professional actors in New York, in September, 1732.

a different aspect from anything I had hitherto seen in America. It was much better cultivated and beautifully laid out into fields of clover, grain, and flax. I passed by a very pretty village called Wilmington [Delaware]. . . . Upon the whole nothing could be more pleasing than the ride which I had this day. I ferried over the Schulkil, about three miles below Philadelphia; from whence to the city the whole country is covered with villas, gardens, and luxuriant orchards.

Philadelphia

Here we are in Philadelphia, the capital of the new United States. With its 25,000 people it is the largest city in the States. We can see the "Old South Street Theater" where General Howe and his friends had witnessed *Duke and No Duke, The Deuce is in him,* and *A Woman kept a Secret.*

The homes of the well-to-do Quakers are rich and well built. Some of the streets are actually well paved and laid out true and straight. Some are numbered and others bear the names of trees — Chestnut, Walnut, Spruce, etc.

Chestnut is the main street of Philadelphia; it is lined with two-storied houses and shops. After the work of the day is done the fashionable Philadelphians promenade along Chestnut Street, displaying their fine clothes.

Here comes a handsome gentleman striding along with a military air. No doubt he is one of the popular Revolutionary heroes. He is a walking fashion plate of the very latest styles. A large three-cornered hat with a bright cockade perches jauntily on powdered hair tied back with a small black ribbon. His coat is a bright-blue broadcloth lined with scarlet. The waistcoat is of satin brocade with huge flap pockets. Both are trimmed with silver buttons engraved with the wearer's initials. The gentleman's well-shaped legs are becomingly displayed by the tight-fitting knee breeches and fine stockings. His low-cut shoes are decorated with large, square silver buckles.

The young man pauses in his military stride to remove his hat and bow low as a young lady minces along the street toward him. The damsel returns his salute with a curtsy almost to the ground. The performance of bowing and curtsying takes up the entire sidewalk.

The lady is a gorgeously dressed creature. With her daintily painted face adorned with tiny black patches, she looks almost too stiff to be anything but a large doll. Her low-cut gown of pale green taffeta and lace fits her tightly down to her tiny waist. Her hair is so thickly powdered as to hide its real color. Crowning her elaborate pompadour is a large flat hat, which nearly conceals a rose artfully placed so as to contrast with the white hair.

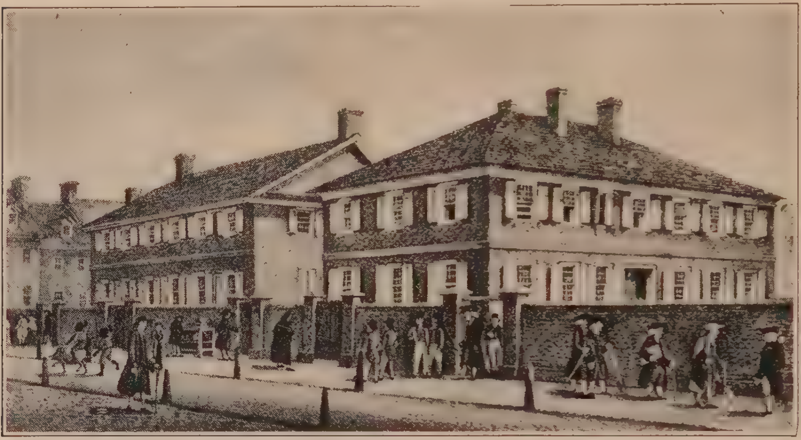

Fig. 106. A Sunday morning in old Philadelphia. People are seen coming from the Quaker meetinghouse

Every fortnight the young Philadelphians, we are told, outdo themselves and one another in dress at the dancing assembly. Only very select people may go, and boys under twenty and girls under eighteen are considered too young to attend these balls.

Though a Philadelphian belle may dress as beautifully as a queen, she need not hope to be more favored than her plainer friends at these balls, for partners for the evening are not chosen by taste but by lot. So, even though a young lady may have the ill fortune to draw a portly elderly gentleman, she must confine her dancing, promenading, and gayety to him only. Furthermore, when the evening is over the partner of the young lady has one more duty to perform. On the following evening he must call upon the parents of the young lady and take supper with them. This is a formal occasion which demands the best china, linen, and cookery of the household.

Before we leave Philadelphia we are invited to journey to Germantown, an outlying village, where an important battle of the Revolution was fought. The German people who settled near by have made of it a charmingly quaint little town. We take the short trip in a stagecoach, for the roads through Pennsylvania are so good that one can travel in some degree of comfort. Villages and towns have sprung up all along the highways. There is Reading with about 130 people, Lancaster with 1000, and York, which is nearly as large.

From Philadelphia we now journey by water along the coast to visit New York. We pass Wilmington, of which Delaware boasts because of its prosperity and size. Then we pass near Newcastle and learn that the town is growing rapidly and that it is well built and attractive. The trip from Philadelphia in a fine, full-rigged schooner is very pleasant.

New York

After a delightful voyage we find ourselves at the mouth of New York Harbor, and beyond the tip of the island we see the buildings of New York. A local writer named William Smith notes that it consists of "about 2500 buildings. It is a mile in length. The streets are irregular . . . lined with well-built brick houses many of which are covered with tiled roofs. . . . The City Hall is a strong brick building, two stories in height, built where four streets meet."

The city is huddled very near the lower end of Peter Minuit's Manhattan Island. There is the tall spire of Trinity Church, where the aristocracy go to worship. To the south and east are the wharves, where ships come and go constantly. Near them are the market places, and at the very tip end of the island are Battery Park and Bowling Green, where the Dutch burghers strolled along the fortification or played at bowls 100 years ago.

At the time of our visit New York is the second largest city and is soon to outstrip Philadelphia in importance and in population. The houses are scattered far apart with wide lawns and gardens between them. At the very edge of the Hudson and East rivers are pretty dwellings set among thick shrubbery. Countless small creeks flow through broad meadows all along the island and form many swamps and pools from which the frogs give nightly serenades. North of the business section, on the outskirts of the town, are orchards and fragrant fields of buckwheat.

Country homes and farms stretch farther northward at a distance of some four to eight miles from Bowling Green. Beyond them are the thick woods of Manhattan where the New Yorkers love to roam, hunting and fishing along the margins of ponds and small lakes or skating on them when they are frozen over. In the autumn there is good duck-hunting over the entire upper island.

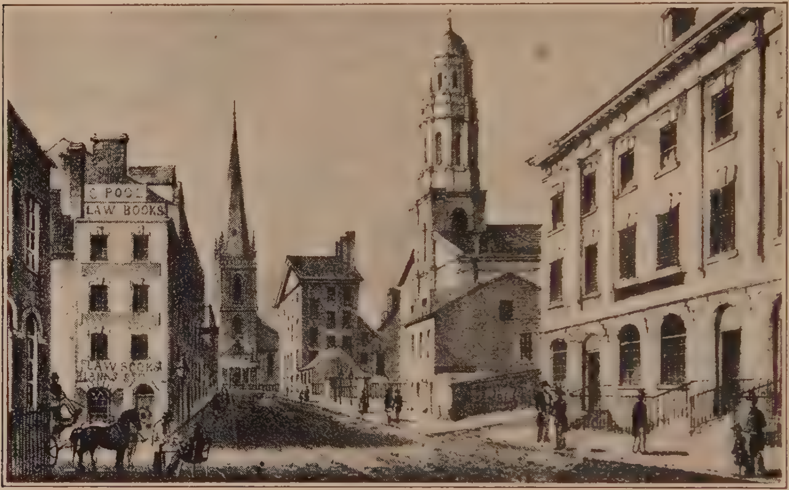

FIG. 107. Wall Street in New York in 1789. At the end of the street is seen Trinity Church, one of the most beautiful churches of its day. (From a lithograph)

In the city there are very few paved streets. The cobblestones are so rough that ladies in thin-soled slippers bruise their feet as they pick their way along Broadway. There are a few street lights, which are really lanterns. The New Yorkers, however, unlike the Philadelphians, are not fond of keeping late hours.

There is a wide choice of amusement in New York. There are likewise any number of taverns where we can stop. Mrs. Loring's at the foot of Broadway is famous, or the City Hotel offers us comfortable quarters, or if we choose we may put up and dine at Mr. Chenelette Dusseaussoir's Confectionery, which is still our finest restaurant.

In the afternoon we shall drop in at the Porter House on Pine Street, where we can nibble at French pastries as we sip our dish of hot tea. Later we may dawdle for an hour or so at the London Hotel, dozing in an armchair or reading the *Political Magazine*. If we feel the need of a stroll we may walk over to the museum, where we may gaze to our heart's content at foreign curiosities; or we may loiter along the busy wharves.

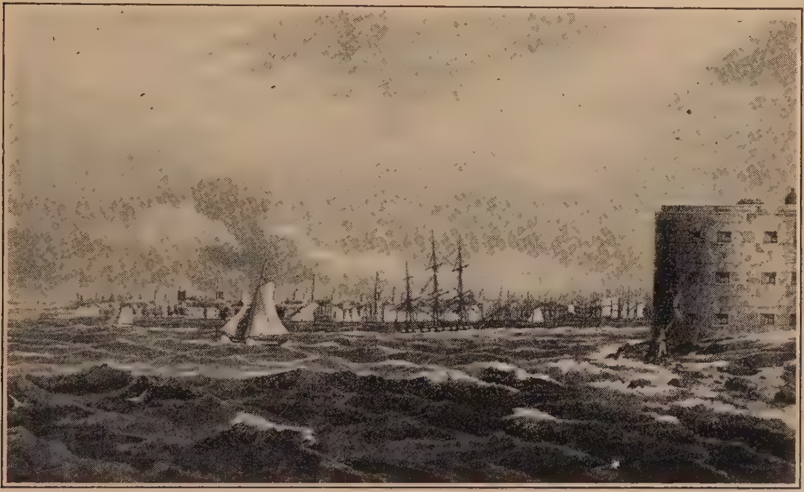

FIG. 108. New York in the late 1700's was a busy port town. It was growing rapidly. Does this picture of the harbor of those days help to explain its growth? (From an old print. Photograph by Keystone View Co.)

After dinner at Fraunce's Tavern, where General Washington recently stayed, we have a choice of many amusements. We might go to the Park Theater to see a play. If we do so, we shall sit in the pit for the fun of watching the players very closely. To be sure, we must keep our hats on there, for who knows when a chop bone, some juicy overripe fruit, or an empty bottle may come crashing upon our unsuspecting heads from an irate occupant of the gallery.

Returning from the theater we pause before a sidewalk booth where a man is cutting silhouettes for customers. The profile of the customer is cut out of black paper and pasted on a white background, and the likenesses seem to us to be excellent. Farther along we see a group of people gathered about a booth where there is a large spyglass. A little farther up the street there is a sign advertising a Punch and Judy Show.

In Bowery Lane there is a kind of merry-go-round and all the other thrills of an amusement park. The music of the band comes to us through the trees which surround the band stand.

We are told that one day we must take a trip up the Boston Post Road to visit Cato's Road House. We also plan to visit some of the villages on the island — Greenwich, Haarlem, or Yorkville.

From New York we shall sail up the Hudson River to Albany. Along the banks of the river, country roads and occasional good highways hum with stagecoaches, carts, and carriages. Mail and passenger coaches stir up a choking cloud of dust, nearly hiding the handsome manor houses of the old Dutch families. There is the enormous estate called Van Cortlandt Manor. To the north is Philipse Manor, where the Van Rensselaers have lived for over 100 years.

Villages and towns dot the river bank at every few miles. New York is a well-populated state, we reflect, for there are 34,000 people scattered from New York City to the northern boundary. The city itself houses only about one tenth of the state's population, and we learn that most of the towns and villages of New York are near the rivers and coasts.

On our way we pass Tarrytown, where many little sailing vessels tack up and down over the vast surface of the water. Let us dip into the pages of Washington Irving's *Rip Van Winkle* and learn what Irving's hero found in Tarrytown:

> For a long while he used to console himself when driven from home, by frequenting a kind of perpetual club of the sages, philosophers, and other idle personages of the village; which held its sessions on a bench before a small inn, designated by a rubicund portrait of His Majesty George the Third. Here they used to sit in the shade through a long, lazy summer's day, talking listlessly over village gossip, or telling endless sleepy stories about nothing. But it would have been worth any statesman's money to have heard the profound discussions that sometimes took place, when by chance an old newspaper fell into their hands from some passing traveler. How solemnly they would listen to the contents, as drawled out by Derrick Van Bummel, the schoolmaster, a

dapper, learned little man, who was not to be daunted by the most gigantic word in the dictionary; and how sagely they would deliberate upon public events some months after they had taken place.[1]

From Tarrytown we sail on to Albany. There, on the spot where old Fort Orange stood, spreads out a busy town of about 3500 people. Many pleasant homes straggle along the ill-paved main street. West of Albany is the old trading post of Schenectady, which has grown to be a very considerable town.

III. LIFE IN NEW ENGLAND

Leaving Albany we shall travel inland, passing through Connecticut and Rhode Island on our way to Boston. Connecticut now, in the late 1700's, has nearly 238,000 inhabitants, 6000 of whom are Negro slaves. We pass through Hartford on the Connecticut River, and farther south we come to New London on the Thames. To the west is the trading town of New Haven, where Yale College is earning a good reputation as a center of learning.

In Rhode Island, which has grown to be a state of nearly 68,000 people, there is the important port town of Providence. We realize suddenly that we are in New England. In fact, we have been jolting over New England roads ever since we left New York State. Everywhere we notice people intent upon business affairs. There are many shops, banks, and small factories in the towns, and as we near the coast we hear a constant distant sound of hammers from the shipyards.

From Providence we once more take to the sea. Off the coast we see fleets of whalers and little fishing smacks. Large freighters pass by, bound for the open sea and Europe. We are told that Yankee square-rigged ships, brigs, sloops, barks, and clipper ships sail into New England harbors every month, bearing goods even from the Orient. There are soft, heavy silks, charming little carved ivory curios, chests of teakwood, fragile porcelain dishes, and many spices. From Europe come books, gowns, and furniture. The cargoes brighten the homes and fill the pockets of prosperous New England traders.

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[1] Washington Irving, *Rip Van Winkle*, pp. 15–16. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1863.

Boston

We continue northward around Cape Cod, and soon we are safe in Boston Harbor. Massachusetts Bay colony now has become a state of nearly 350,000 people, and Boston is its largest city. We feel quite excited to be visiting the city which played so important a part in the recent war. In fact, Massachusetts is full of historic places. There is little Plymouth, where the first Pilgrims landed. It has never grown very large, but it will never be forgotten. Salem is still an important port, but it has been left far behind by the city of Boston.

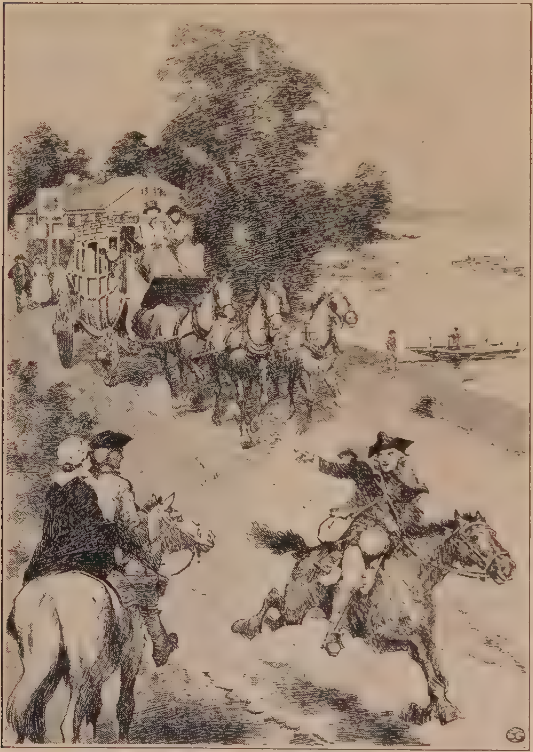
FIG. 109. In 1800 the roads of New England were beginning to be very busy places. Postriders and stagecoaches were becoming more frequent sights

Boston is the center of American life. An enthusiastic writer said of it about this time:

> Boston — Metropolis of North America, with Three Thousand Houses in it, . . . about Two thirds of them wooden Framed Clap Boards and some of them Very Spacious Buildings. . . . The Streets are very Irregular; the Main streets are Broad and Paved with stone, the Cross Streets are Narrow . . . the Towne Extends ab't two miles in Length North and South. . . . This Place has about twelve Meeting Houses and Three Churches which are all very Indifferent Buildings. . . . They have but One Market which is all Built of Brick about Eighty Foot Long. . . . They have Also a Town House Built of Brick. . . . It's a Very Grand Building.

We see for ourselves, however, that the writer was perhaps carried away by his admiration for Boston. In the older portion of the city the houses are in truth rather commonplace, and their ugly, unpainted clapboards, topped by a flapping family washing on the roof, contrast sharply with the fine dwellings on the other side of town. There the streets are neat, the houses stand far back, nearly hidden behind the gardens, and the white pillars before the doorways and the solid red brick of the houses stand out clearly where there are openings among the fresh green trees and shrubs.

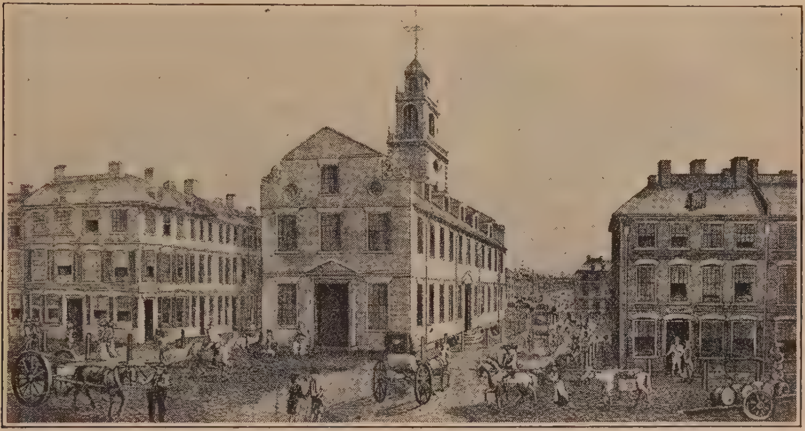

FIG. 110. The heart of Boston about 1780. The building in the center of the picture was erected in 1748 and was the seat of colonial and later of state government

Let us stop to call upon our old friends, the Eatons. Inside the house we are greeted with a lively tune. We are a little dismayed until we discover that we have arrived precisely at five in the afternoon, and it is merely the clock which has just struck. It is a huge "grandfather's" clock which has come from the shop of an expert English clockmaker.

In the living room we are dazzled for a moment by the blaze of light which comes from the tall movable candelabra by the tea table. The tea table itself is gay with blue Wedgwood dishes. Before we have tea, however, we stand for a moment before the huge, stone fireplace decorated with glazed tiles which illustrate a story from the Bible. The great brass andirons wink up at us as the glare of the flames is reflected from their polished knobs.

We glance about the room as we sip our hot tea. The walls are hung with family portraits, some by Stuart and one by Copley. Those two artists are the American masters of the day. On the shelves of the bookcases and the secretary are ranged a motley collection of books, but we quickly decide that we could not find much amusement in reading them. There are heavy volumes on religious subjects, and a few worthless novels. There are, however, a few rare and excellent works scattered among the ordinary books.

The master and mistress of the house remark that they have little leisure time for reading. The young lady daughter admits that she has read little more than *The Lives of the Martyrs* and the novels. She adds laughingly that most of her reading is in the recipe book. This young lady has recently returned from a "young ladies' academy" and is now adding the final touches to her education by learning all the household arts necessary to make her a good housewife. She can embroider very daintily. A little shyly she shows us some of her drawings and paintings. She regrets, however, that she knows not a word of any foreign language, has never seen a play in her life, and cannot tell one playing card from another. She has never traveled either in Europe or America.

We leave the Eaton house, reflecting that Boston is no longer the Puritan city of the 1600's. Even the home of a good Congregationalist like Mr. Eaton is much less somber than was that of his grandfather. In fact, we have just learned that some Bostonians live a rather sociable life. They have many quilting parties, spinning matches, and even balls where the guests dance to the minuet or a gay country tune. At the moment, however, it is English dinners that are most fashionable.

Across the river from Boston is Harvard College. It is many years old now, having been founded in 1636 by John Cotton, Governor Winthrop, and others of their group. In 1638 John Harvard left the college half his estate and 260 books.

The boys and girls of New England do not lack schools. To be sure, there are not enough schools for everyone. The girls go to the little red schoolhouses in summer, where women and occasional men teachers give them daily lessons in reading, writing, and arithmetic. The boys are taught by a man during the winter. The master is quite often a Harvard student who is trying to get enough money to finish his studies.

Though he be very poor, the master need never worry about his board and room, for the community in which he teaches provides his living. If he is in a wealthy community, he may stay in one home all the year, but the usual plan is for him to move about from one home to another. The length of his stay in one family will depend upon the number of sons he teaches. It is true that the teacher may not be altogether pleased with the plan. His salary is very meager and, added to that, the constant change of residence is not always pleasant. He may have to walk long distances in bad weather.

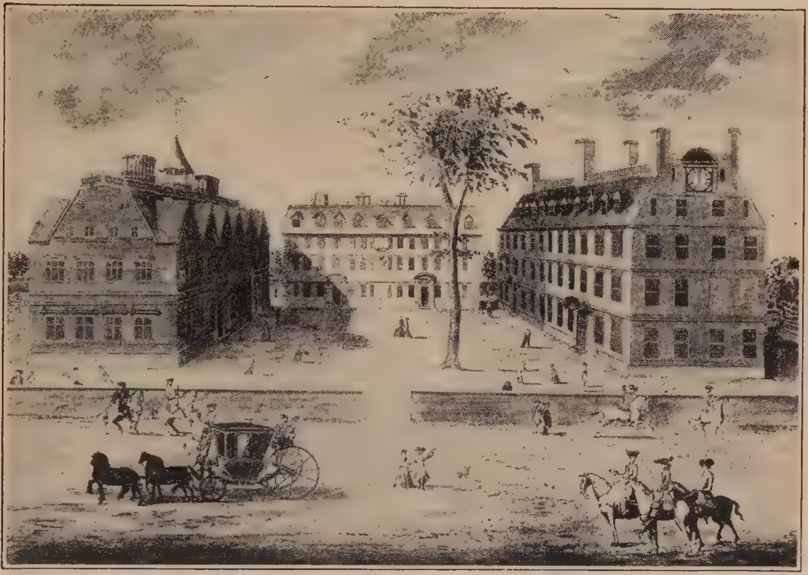

FIG. 111. Harvard College, about 1800, was a well-established educational center. In 1782 a medical school was added to it, and by 1819 law was also taught. (From an old print)

In the homes, however, he is always sure of his welcome. He is given the best guest room and the best food the house can offer. On winter evenings he may help the boys to study or he may sit in the coziest corner by the fire, helping the daughters to wind yarn. The lessons are not at all difficult. There are only reading, writing, spelling, and simple arithmetic problems — just enough so that these children may know how to read the Bible and popular pamphlets and almanacs, to write letters to friends, and to figure interest on loans. We wonder whether people will not need more education in the growing cities of America.

As we stroll through the streets of Boston we notice many small shops. There are tailor shops, where one can order a suit made for him. The women in the towns no longer need to card, spin, weave, and cut out all the clothing for the family. We see cabinet-makers' shops, where one can buy furniture, and farther along there are hardware shops, where implements and nails are for sale.

Mr. Eaton himself, whose house we have just visited, is a wealthy merchant. He spends his time during the day at his warehouse or at the wharves, overseeing the loading and unloading of cargoes. If he wants an addition built to his home, he hires a carpenter to do the job, instead of doing it himself as his great-grandfather would have done. In fact, the colonial Jack-of-all-trades is giving way to the American "specialist."

Farm life in New England

What about the New England farmer? Has he also become a specialist? Is he still as sober and severe as his ancestors of the early 1700's? We shall try to discover for ourselves during our stay in Boston. Fortune favors us, for the very first night in Boston we meet a farmer who is on a visit to the city. He willingly answers our questions as to his way of living, and from him we learn that most of the people of New Hampshire, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts are still living in the country, working hard to make ends meet.

His farm, the friendly countryman tells us, is a typical one. It consists of twenty acres near Plymouth. The soil is sandy and it takes hard work to raise a crop. The hillsides are rock-strewn, and he and his sons never cease their efforts to clear their land of small stones. The farmer's hands are toil-worn and his back is stooped from constant bending over the earth. Yet he is very proud of his farm. He says, speaking of the period of the war:

> At this time my farm gave me and my whole family a good living on the produce of it, and left me one year with another one hundred and fifty dollars, for I never expend more than ten dollars a year, which was for salt, nails, and the like. Nothing to eat, drink or wear was bought as my farm provided all.[1]

We ask him what his farm yields.

"Everything," he answers proudly. "Grain and animals for food, wood for furniture and implements, flax and wool for cloth, skins for jackets and shoes. My sons and I plow the fields and sow, harvest, and grind grain into flour. My wife and daughters make bread, hasty puddings, pastries, and johnnycake. In the fall we slaughter the hogs and beeves and cure the meat for the winter. I raise my own flax, and my wife spins and weaves it into linen for the house. The boys and I shear the sheep. The women folks clean the wool, card it, spin it, and weave it. My wife made me this suit I'm wearing," he added, glancing at his

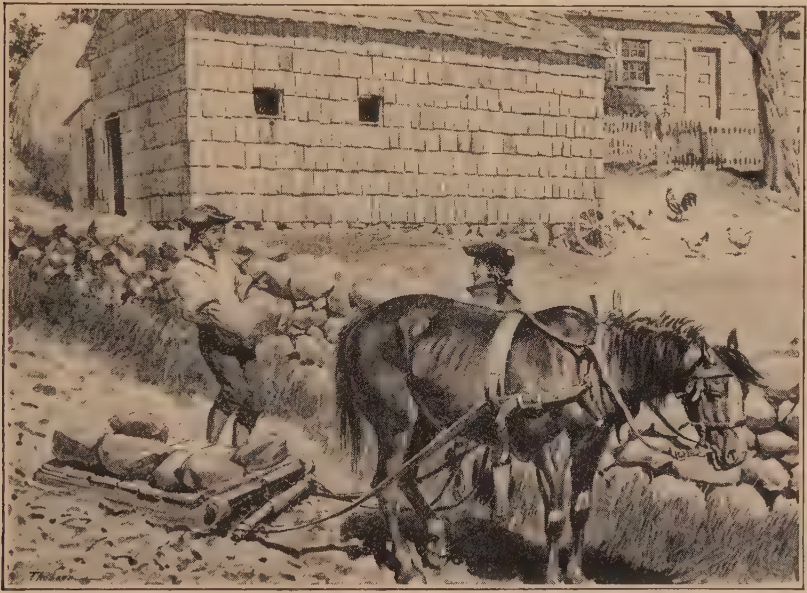

FIG. 112. A typical New England farm of about 1800. Clearing the land of stones was a never-ending job for the farmers

blue homespun suit, which fits him ill. "She dyed the cloth and cut and sewed it herself."

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[1] Alice Morse Earle, *Home Life in Colonial Days*, p. 158. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

"Then we have our sugar bush," he went on, "200 maple trees for the boys and me to tap every winter. We make enough maple sugar to sell about 500 pounds here in Boston every year besides what we use ourselves."

Let us glance at a page from a New England country girl's diary to see whether or not she has as much time for playing the spinet, reading, and embroidering as her city cousins. Abigail Foote says:

> Fix'd gown for Prude, — Mend Mother's Riding-hood, — Spun short thread, — Fix'd two gowns for Welsh's girls, — Carded tow, — Spun linen, — Worked on Cheese-basket, — Hatchel'd flax with Hannah, we did 51 lbs. apiece, — Pleated and ironed, — Read a Sermon of Doddridge's, — Spooled a piece, — Milked the cows, Spun linen, did 50 knots, — Made a Broom of Guinea wheat straw, — Spun thread to whiten, — Set a Red dye, — Had two scholars from Mrs. Taylor's, — I carded two pounds of whole wool and felt Nationaly, — Spun harness twine, Scoured the pewter.[1]

Although this seems an enormous amount of labor, Abigail had many other tasks. She made soap, dipped candles, cooked, knitted, and helped to do some of the light farm work. If she lost her woolen mittens and needed a new pair she could not buy them; she must knit them from wool that had been sheared, cleaned, dyed, carded, rolled, and spun on the farm. When she sat with the other members of the family near the fireplace she had no time for reading; her hands must always be occupied with mending, knitting, or sewing. She had as many and as varied tasks as those which had occupied her grandmother.

Nor were the New England farmers much less severe in their manner of living than their colonial ancestors. They spent most of their Sundays in cold churches, listening to long sermons. Many of the very innocent acts of their city cousins were regarded as very wicked.

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[1] Alice Morse Earle, *Home Life in Colonial Days*, p. 253. By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

A hearty, red-faced sailor in a New England tavern told us an amusing story of an incident which took place on his ship just before the Revolution. The story illustrates the way the New Englanders still looked on frivolous doings. The schooner had just returned from a long cruise. The captain scandalized his neighbors (for it was Sunday) by kissing his wife and embracing her in public. He was called before the magistrates, severely scolded, and publicly whipped.

The Western Frontier and beyond

We have now visited the Americans all along the coast of the newly formed states. But we still have not seen life on the western frontier. We have no time now for a long trip beyond the Appalachians, but let us imagine for the moment the country of which we shall read in the next chapter.

Buffalo trails and well-worn Indian paths are almost the only highways through the great expanse of lowland beyond the mountains. There are a few forts on the lower shores of Lake Michigan and on the banks of the Illinois, Ohio, Missouri, and Mississippi rivers. These settlements with picturesque French and Indian names — such as Crève Cœur ("Broken Heart"), Prud'homme ("Goodman"), Michimackinac, Maurepas, Kaskaskia, Prairie de Roche ("Rocky Meadow"), Fort Chartres, Fort Natchitoches, Fort Rosalie — are only small clusters of houses finished in a kind of stucco.

At the lower end of the Mississippi River the small French city of New Orleans has been built. New Orleans is a quaint place with its cathedral and its Old World streets and houses. To the east at the head of Mobile Bay is another French city, Mobile.

In Texas there is the Spanish mission of San Antonio built beside the river of the same name, and there are two tiny missions in Arizona. In California the Spanish priests have built a number of missions and towns along the coast south of San Francisco. In Florida there is a tiny fort at St. Augustine, but the Spanish attempt at colonization has come to naught.

Thus after the Revolutionary War we see a fringe of firmly settled life along the Atlantic coast, where one thirtieth of the American people are living in flourishing small towns and cities. Behind the coastal plain rises the Appalachian barrier. And everywhere the wave of westward movement is breaking over the crests of the mountains. On the other side it is slowly spreading farther and farther into the great Mississippi Valley. Beyond the Mississippi, where the great Rocky Mountains form a still mightier barrier, however, the hardiest frontiersmen have not yet ventured. In the Southwest Spanish and French settlements still exist which are to leave traces of these nations on the new continent.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

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CHAPTER XII

THE FIRST SETTLEMENTS BEYOND THE APPALACHIANS

The Vast Territory of the American States, 1783

By the treaty of 1783 the thirteen young American states were given a huge empire of fertile land. It extended from the Atlantic on the east to the Mississippi on the west; from the Great Lakes on the north almost to the Gulf of Mexico on the south — more than 800,000 square miles of territory. Not one of the powerful kings of Europe — England, France, or Spain — could boast of so large a kingdom.

On the map of figure 113, notice the rich prize which the American States now owned — the broad Ohio and Mississippi valleys. Two thirds of this great region, from the Appalachians to the Mississippi, was level enough to be cultivated.

Only one sixth of the land claimed by the United States had ever been touched by white men. The Indians had cultivated little of it. There was all that was needed for the raising of bountiful crops. The virgin top soil was almost unbelievably fertile.

Furthermore, the "geography" of most of the new territory was favorable for settlement by white pioneers. The temperature was stimulating and varied — neither too hot nor too cold for long at a time. Rain fell plentifully in all seasons of the year, averaging nearly 40 inches a year. In *An Introduction to American Civilization* you read that this amount of rainfall makes possible huge annual crops of grain.

South of the Ohio valley the days were warmer, the rainfall from 40 to 60 inches, and the growing season longer. Even before 1800 the planters in Virginia, Georgia, and the Carolinas were beginning to think that a great cotton kingdom beyond the mountains might be built in the Gulf lands — the region where Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas now stand.

But an empire of fertile top soil was not the only prize bequeathed to the States by the treaty of 1783. Other important kinds of wealth lay in the region west of the Atlantic seaboard. There were forests and there were minerals — coal, iron, and oil!

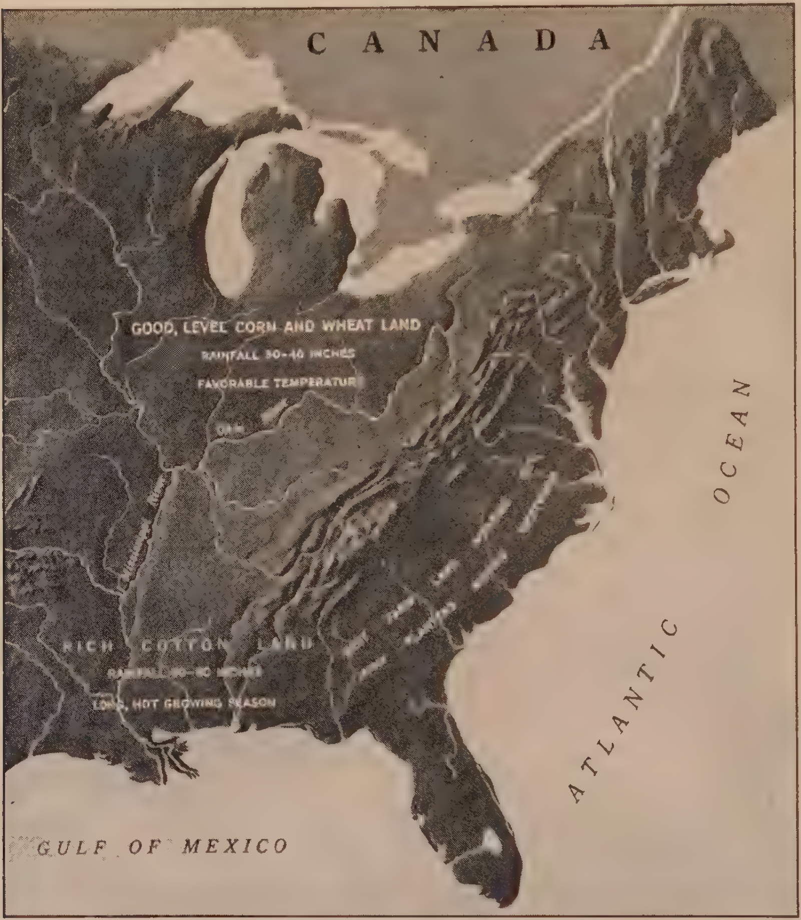
CANADA
GOOD, LEVEL CORN AND WHEAT LAND
RAINFALL 30-40 INCHES
FAVORABLE TEMPERATUR
RICH COTTON LAND
LONG, HOT GROWING SEASON
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO

FIG. 113. In 1783 the United States gained a vast new territory of fertile land, the northern part of which was favorable to the growth of grain, while the southern part contained land excellent for cotton-growing

Even in the Appalachian Mountains, which for a century and a half had kept the settlers on the narrow coastal plain, the land was covered with untold wealth. Tens of thousands of square miles of mountain side which could not easily be used for farming were thickly covered with a wilderness of valuable forests. For many years after the Revolutionary War eager pioneers who were looking for more good farm land failed to see the riches which hid among the tall timber. Yet there it stretched from Maine to Georgia, carpeting the mountains, untouched by the pioneers for decades.

Still greater wealth, lying beneath the fertile top soil and the majestic trees, was hidden from the eyes of the Americans. Beds containing billions of tons of coal and iron and lakes of oil lay waiting to be mined — all ready to provide fuel for the industrial age, which was shortly to arrive in America.

Thus in soil, in forests, in favorable climate, and in mineral resources the American people gained a fabulously wealthy inheritance. In 1783 no one could have guessed its true value.

How much of this Territory had been settled in 1783?

As we saw in the last chapter, only a small part of this great eastern half of the United States was peopled by white men. A few small towns and many tiny villages had sprung up in the North American wilderness during a century and a half of English settlement. Surrounding the towns and cities lay thousands of farms. Altogether, thirteen permanent states had been built and had grown to a population of nearly 4,000,000.

But settlement still clung closely to the seaboard. From Maine to Pennsylvania the frontier lay less than 150 miles inland, and in the South, where the coastal plain broadened out, settlement had spread inland only about 200 miles.

The building of the thirteen colonies had been a mighty task to accomplish during a century and a half. Yet the labor of Americans had only begun. They had settled less than one tenth of the land area to which they laid claim in 1783.

Had no Americans crossed the Appalachians, then? Indeed, yes. Thousands of daring pioneers had already built log cabins and cleared small farms in "Kentucky" and "Tennessee" and in the Appalachian Highlands of Pennsylvania (see figure 114). For twenty years before, white hunters had been following the buffalo and Indian paths through the wilderness. From early records we know that even before 1765 several hundred frontiersmen had ventured over the Appalachians to the Mississippi River.

George Washington's Exploring Trip, 1783–1784

In 1783 George Washington was one of the most popular figures in the world. The American people admired, almost worshiped him. Honors were showered upon him. He was invited everywhere. The French government had urged him to visit France.

But the lure of the vast American West was so great that he did not accept the honors, and turning his back upon Europe he gave himself to the exploration of the unknown, western lands in his own country. Taking off the sword and uniform which he had worn as commander in chief of the American army, and donning rough, frontier garb, he started on another memorable trip across the Appalachians.

From Washington's diary we get a glimpse of his interest in the Western country:

> I found it indispensably necessary to visit my Landed property west of the Appalachean Mountains . . . one object of my journey being to obtain information of the nearest and best communication between Eastern and Western waters; and to facilitate as much as in me lay the Inland Navigation of the Potomack.

He wished to visit his many farms in the mountains in order to sell them, if he could find a pioneer buyer, for the settlers were already there tilling the soil.

More important than Washington's private interests, however, were his dreams for the future of his country. His desire was to learn the best routes along which roads and waterways might be opened to connect Virginia and the West. In his youth Washington had been a surveyor; so he was already well acquainted with the land. He knew how important it was to build up transportation, for the Western settlers must have open roads along which to bring their goods to Eastern coast towns. Washington knew also the value of rivers as cheap highways through the mountains to the plain.

Thus General George Washington, soon to be the first president of the country which he had fought so hard to win from England, followed the Western wilderness trails. He passed through the very region where as a youth he had fought the Indians and the French. He revisited old Fort Necessity, where his English commanding officer, General Braddock, had died.

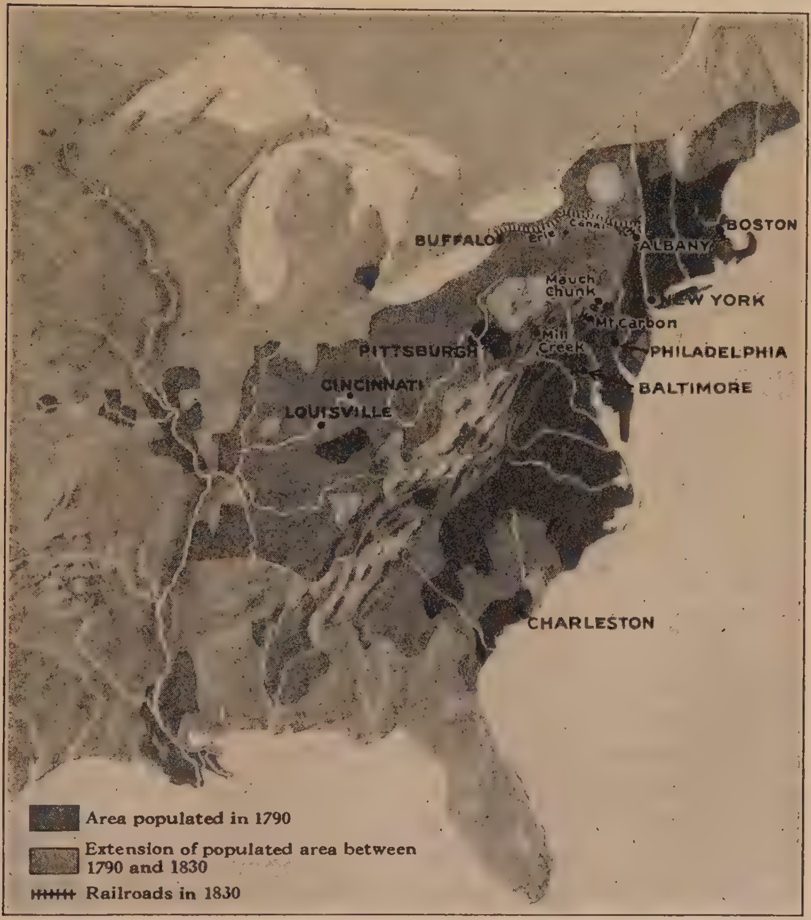
BUFFALO
Erie Canal
ALBANY
BOSTON
Mauch Chunk
NEW YORK
Mt Carbon
Mill Creek
PITTSBURGH
PHILADELPHIA
CINCINNATI
BALTIMORE
LOUISVILLE
CHARLESTON
Area populated in 1790
Extension of populated area between 1790 and 1830
Railroads in 1830

FIG. 114. The darkest shading on this map shows the area settled in 1790. The next lighter shading shows the land into which the growing population had spread by 1830. By the later date the Erie Canal had been constructed and 23 miles of railroad had been built

As Washington traveled through the Appalachians, studying maps of the region from the Mississippi to the Atlantic, he marked out the most important paths of commerce between the East and West. He was a man of foresight, and his vision embraced the whole vast region. He foresaw that the little trading post of Detroit would become a center of trade for the Lake Erie, Lake Ontario, and St. Lawrence region, and he marked off the portages of the Indians and future trade and transportation routes along the Ohio, the Monongahela, the Youghiogheny, and the Potomac rivers. He believed that all these streams would be dotted with shipping craft some day.

Invention and industrial developments interested Washington, too. He had an interview with James Rumsey, who had just invented a new steamboat. Washington mentioned this in his diary and predicted that steam transportation on rivers and lakes would become most important.[1]

Washington pointed out from his map study that canals could be built joining many rivers, mentioning, for example, the Schuylkill and the Susquehanna. He predicted that the Mohawk and Hudson valleys would be threaded by many important transportation routes and that canals might be built along the Potomac also. Washington was right, as we know from our study of transportation in *An Introduction to American Civilization.* Like most of his neighbors Washington dreamed that a great trading nation would grow from the thirteen little independent states along the Atlantic seaboard.

From such records as Washington's diary we can be sure that fingers of Western settlement were stretching across the Appalachians. By 1783 there were thousands of backwoodsmen in Kentucky. After peace had come the number grew at an amazing rate. Settlers from the Carolinas and Virginia were clearing the wilderness with such energy that in 1784 it was estimated that no less than 12,000 people had made their homes beyond the mountains. Some writers set the number as high as 30,000. At any rate, a land-hungry throng were claiming the West, especially the middle district of what are now Kentucky and Tennessee, until by 1790 there were 74,000 people in Kentucky *alone.*

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[1] We do not know whether or not he knew of the steam wagon that was being tried successfully in England. Probably he had not yet learned of it, for it was during the very time he was on his Western trip that William Murdock in England had built a steam wagon. From his emphasis upon river transportation, however, we can infer that Washington had no idea that steam railroads would soon outstrip steamboats as transportation links in America.

Let us glance back to days before the Revolution and follow the westward march of the pioneers to the Mississippi River. First, a glimpse of the backwoods life of the hunters.

I. LIFE IN THE KENTUCKY WILDERNESS, SOUTH OF THE OHIO

DANIEL BOONE AND THE "LONG HUNTERS" IN KENTUCKY, 1767–1771

Silently six young North Carolina woodsmen moved along the narrow trail through the dim Appalachian forest. Soon their trained eyes saw many signs that the end of the forest was near. They strained weary muscles in an effort to arrive quickly in the land beyond the trees.

At last the forest thinned and the travelers came into a clearing. Here, on a rise of ground, grass waved in the June sunlight, a clear stream reflected the early summer leaves leaning over its banks, and the ground rolled gently toward a woodland in the distance.

What refreshment to their eyes after months of tramping through dim, rank forest! Behind them it now lay, separating them from the settlements they had left over a month ago. They were glad to be free of dark walls of mighty timber.

As the young hunters gazed upon the unconquered beauty of Kentucky, they must have felt a challenge to settle there. Two of them, John Findlay and Daniel Boone, had visited there before. Now they dreamed of setting up new one-room log cabins like those they had left behind on the borderland. Their hands and muscles felt ready for the work of clearing land, planting pumpkin, corn, and squash, and fighting Indians. They had almost forgotten the life safe from hardship in the coast towns.

Boone and his companions and their busy, courageous families were true pioneers. To them new land was always more promising than old. They were restless backwoodsmen.

Yet the task of bringing wives and children over the lonely, rough wilderness must have worried them even in their first enthusiasm. This land had long been an Indian battleground, where northern and southern tribes had fought for possession of the land until the name of "dark and bloody ground" was well deserved.

No wonder the Indians had fought to own it. The prairies and woodlands were pasture lands for dense herds of buffaloes. Broad trails through the forest showed where countless hoofs had thundered through the trees. Both northern and southern Indians had gone there to hunt the buffalo, the elk, the deer, and the bear.

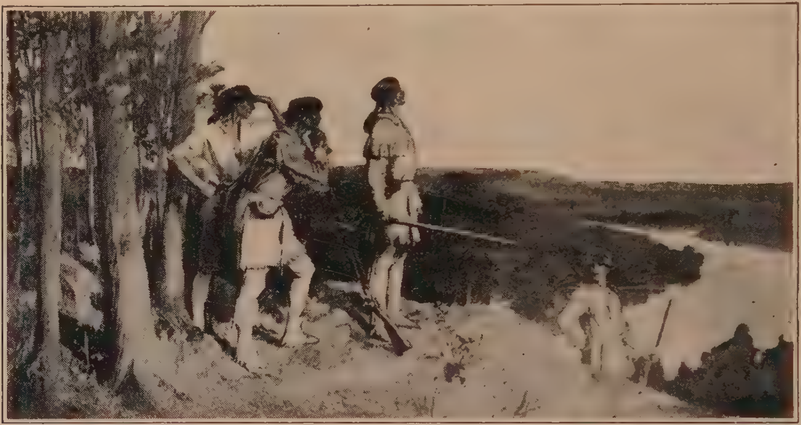

FIG. 115. Daniel Boone and his companions see the land of Kentucky. (After a painting by T. Gilbert White in the Kentucky State Capitol, Frankfort)

Daniel Boone and the backwoodsmen were charmed by the Kentucky country. They spent months hunting there. At length all except Boone returned across the mountains to their families. Boone remained, roaming the forests. At night he slept in a hollow tree or on the ground. By day he hunted, always alert against the Indians. Again and again he needed all his woodsman's skill, for several times he was captured and escaped only by outwitting his cunning foes.

Boone occasionally met other pioneers in the forest. Here and there all along the frontier, men were venturing into the wilderness, on foot or in canoes. Some had even reached the Mississippi. In spite of danger the backwoodsmen preferred to travel the forests alone. They were called "long hunters" because they chose to remain away from the settlements for long periods of time.

THE WOODSMEN MADE THE WILDERNESS ROAD FOR THE USE OF SETTLERS

In March, 1775, just before the first battle of the Revolution was fought at Lexington, Massachusetts, Boone and a band of woodsmen were hard at work in Kentucky on a new trail. With their axes they were cutting through the forest a path which would soon be worn smooth by thousands of feet. Boone blazed the trail, for he knew the country better than most of the others.

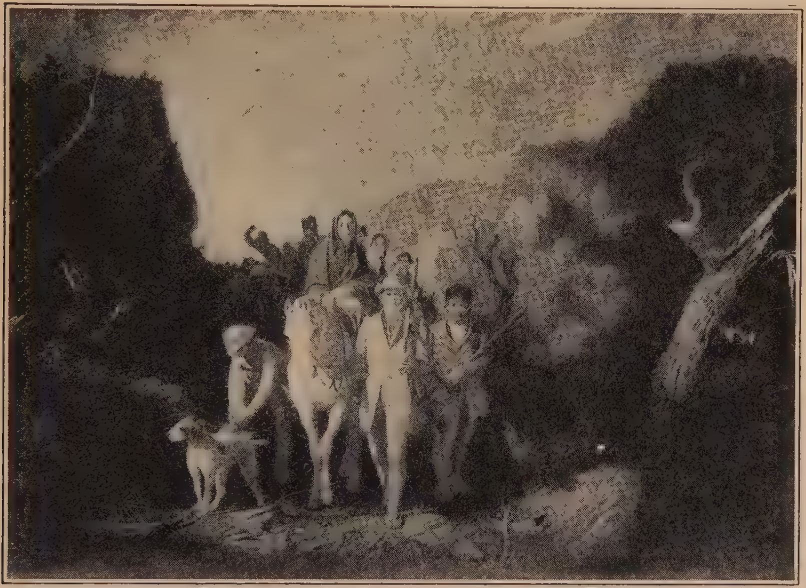

FIG. 116. Daniel Boone not only blazed the trail of the Wilderness Road, but when it was finished he guided bands of settlers into the new country. (From a painting by George C. Bingham. Courtesy of Washington University and the City Art Museum of St. Louis)

Trail-blazing meant marking the route by cutting through the bark of certain trees, usually within visible distance of one another, the number or shape of the notches often distinguishing different trails. Then the trail-makers behind the blazer would cut out the underbrush and make a wider path. There was no thought of making a wagon road, for the woodsmen knew that the settlers who would soon travel the trail would go on foot with their household goods loaded on pack horses.

At last the Wilderness Road, for that is what this trail was called, was cut through forests and thickets as far as Kentucky. One of the backwoodsmen wrote at the time:

> We began to discover the pleasing and rapturous appearance of the plains of Kentucky. A new sky and strange earth seeemed to be presented to our view. So rich a soil we had never seen before — covered with clover in full bloom. The woods were abounding with wild game — turkeys so numerous that it might be said they appeared but one flock, universally scattered in the woods. It appeared that Nature, in the profusion of her bounty, had spread a feast for all that lived. . . . A sight so delightful to our view and so grateful to our feelings almost inclined us to kiss the soil of Kentucky — in imitation of Columbus, as he hailed and saluted the sand on his first setting foot on the shores of America.[1]

IMMEDIATELY SETTLERS FOLLOWED INTO KENTUCKY

Over the newly cut trail and down the Ohio River came the pioneers, looking for homes. Most of them were from the backwoods of Virginia, the Carolinas, and the lower Appalachian valleys. Many of them were descendants of the Scotch-Irish who had settled these backwoods very early. They were poor but fearless and sturdy. Their place was always in the advance of the westward movement, where they could get free land. They were brave enough to keep it from the Indians and industrious enough to make it feed them.

One of the first tasks of the settlers in every new community was to build a fort or blockhouse against attacks by the Indians. Nearly all the forts were built in the same way. They were made on newly cleared land in the form of a rectangle. In each corner was a blockhouse with loopholes cut in the logs, through which the settlers could fire. Often the walls of the fort were formed partly by stockades, partly by the walls of cabins the doors of which faced the center of the fort. Sometimes they were made as shown in figure 117. The pioneer families lived in the fort and were quite safe behind the bullet-proof logs unless the Indians set them afire.

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[1] Adapted from H. Addington Bruce's *Daniel Boone and the Wilderness Road.* By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

Although some of the frontier life was happy and care-free, there was always present the grim death struggle between Indians and white settlers for possession of the land. It was a bitter, merciless fight on both sides. The whites were determined to gain more land, and the Indians wanted desperately to hold the land they had long occupied. Every year the white men pushed them farther west, destroying their villages and killing their people in order to gain ground. Whenever it was possible the Indians revenged themselves by destroying and murdering ruthlessly.

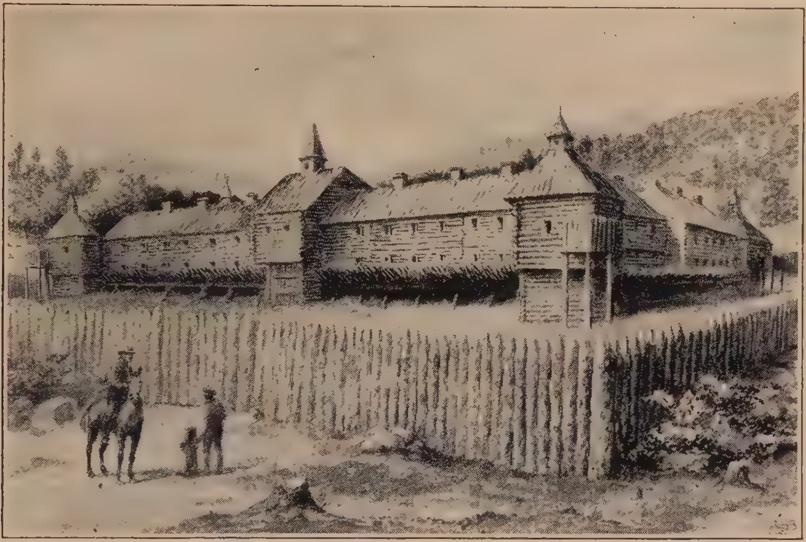

FIG. 117. Blockhouses like this were the homes and forts of the early settlers in the land which was later known as the Northwest Territory

"Brothers," said an Indian chief, with whom the white settlers were bargaining for land in Kentucky, "it is a goodly country we give you, but we fear you will not find it easy to hold."

One Indian chief, named Logan, whom one white hunter considered "the best specimen of humanity he ever met with, whether white or red," became a bitter enemy of the pioneers. It is said that this was because of the brutality of one white trader. Logan had been for many years a firm friend of white settlers. He had often persuaded other Indian tribes to spare white villages. But on the last day of April, 1774, Logan's friendship was turned to undying hatred and a valuable Indian ally was lost.

On that day a party of Logan's tribesmen paid a visit to a white trader. The brutal white man and two of his companions gave them liquor until they were all very drunk. Then they murdered the whole party in cold blood.

As soon as the fact was known there was warfare between Indians and settlers all along the Kentucky frontier. Finally, the Indians were defeated and a peace council was called between the whites and the Indian chiefs. Logan alone refused to come. He sent this message instead:

> I appeal to any white man to say if ever he entered Logan's cabin hungry and he gave him not meat; if ever he came cold and naked and he clothed him not. During the course of the last long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites that my countrymen pointed as I passed and said, "Logan is the friend of the white man." I had even thought to have lived with you, but for the injuries of one man. Colonel Cresap, the last spring, in cold blood and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not even sparing my women and children. There remains not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have sought it. I have killed many. I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country I rejoice at the beams of peace; but do not harbor a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to save his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan? Not one.[1]

After peace had been declared and the Indians were less dangerous, the pioneers left their forts unprotected and went to live in their own little log cabins. Some of these were crude, indeed, yet the families were glad to have them. While they were being put together everyone slept outdoors. One family was so fortunate as to be allowed the use of a covered sheep pen which had belonged to an earlier settler.

The homes were one story high. At first there was no light or air in them except what came through the door. During the winter, light and heat were supplied by a huge fireplace. At first there was no floor, but later slabs were laid down. The most important of the family possessions was the long rifle, which lay on two pegs driven into the rough log walls of the cabin. The ax and the scythe rested under the wooden bunk at night. In case of a sudden Indian attack, these could be snatched instantly for defense.

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[1] Constance Lindsay Skinner, *Pioneers of the Old Southwest*, pp. 126–127, Vol. XVIII of The Chronicles of America series. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1919.

In the morning when the frontiersman arose, he climbed the wooden ladder to the loft to peep through the cracks. This was to make sure there were no Indians waiting for the door to be opened, so that they might rush in. If everything looked safe enough, the pioneer lifted the strong crossbeam and the heavy latch.

All day he and his family worked, clearing the land or tending his small patch of corn, pumpkins, or squash. Of course they had to do all the work themselves, for the pioneer was too poor to hire helpers. Perhaps after a summer of heavy toil, when the grain rose tall and strong, the woodsman and his family might wake one morning to see it frostbitten, or ruined by wild animals or marauding Indians.

We can scarcely imagine what a bitter disappointment that would be to frontier people who had been hungry for a piece of bread since their arrival in the wilderness. It is true they were in little danger of starving, for game was everywhere. Turkeys were countless and sometimes so fat that when a woodsman shot them, their skins would burst as they fell to the ground; but the frontier family nearly sickened of animal food. Frequently they would have given almost anything for a loaf of wheat bread, but often there was none to be had until the first grain crop was harvested.

How the Settlers worked and played together

Of course the work of hewing settlements out of the wilderness was endless. No man could do his own tasks unaided. The whole community had to work together on the building of a new cabin or the husking of the corn crop. The frontiersmen made gay occasions of these community gatherings. There was often much rough play and free-for-all fighting among the men, but that was merely part of the entertainment.

The corn-husking "bee" took place in autumn after the corn was gathered. The neighbors were notified that on a certain night they were to meet at a certain house. As each man or boy arrived the host gave him a drink from the green whisky bottle, which was stopped with a corncob. As soon as enough settlers had gathered, two captains were chosen.

The ears of corn had all been heaped together in a long row. Now the pile was carefully divided into two parts by the captains.

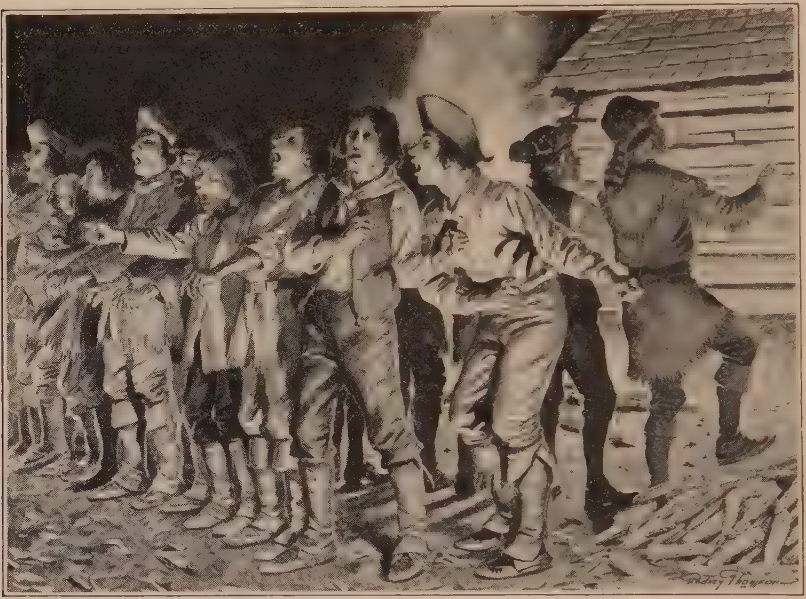

FIG. 118. Corn husking on the Western frontier was an excuse for a "party"

Then the men were chosen, the rival teams lined up, and at a signal they charged the pile of corn and began the race to husk it. The captains sat on the rail which divided the pile into halves.

The rivalry between the teams was fierce. The captains were not above trying to move the rail toward their own side so as to shorten the length of their half. The workers, too, sometimes pushed corn under the rail to the other side. If a man were caught at such tricks, he, of course, immediately denied his guilt. If the accuser insisted, the accused usually shouted, "You're a liar!" and the question was settled with fists, then or later.

As soon as the workers on both sides of the rail had husked their amount of corn, both teams turned their backs upon one another. Then, swinging their arms in time, they sang a rollicking song that could be heard far in the clear night air. At the end the captain of the winning team was hoisted to the shoulders of the strongest men. Waving his hat in one hand, he was carried around the defeated team amid deafening shouts.

And last came the supper, which the women had been preparing while the men husked. By midnight the huskers were on their way home, for many of them had come from long distances, and sunup brought another round of duties to them.

The weddings were also great events among the pioneers. In fact, they were the only occasions with which work was not connected. The whole neighborhood was invited and great preparations were made.

To be sure, there were no tailors within miles, and it was a motley troop that attended the wedding. The men were dressed in shoepacks, or moccasins, leather breeches, leggings, linsey-woolsey hunting shirts — all homemade. The women wore linsey-woolsey petticoats and gowns, coarse shoes, heavy knit stockings, and, sometimes, buckskin gloves. Here and there a ring might shine on a toil-worn hand, silver buckles might brighten a hunting shirt, or lace ruffles might decorate a homespun gown; but those were relics of better days on the other side of the mountains.

On the wedding day the friends of the groom met at the house of his father. From there they escorted him, in double file, to the home of the bride. Often it was necessary to clamber over fallen trees and grapevines which lay across the trail.

The wedding ceremony occurred before dinner. Then the feast took place. It consisted of wild game, beef, pork, and vegetables. The table might be only a slab hewn out of a log and set on four poles. The dishes were of old pewter or wood. There was no silver; horn spoons, battered pewter, and the hunting knives of the men served in its stead. After dinner the guests began to dance, and usually they danced until morning. You may be sure both musician and dancers were well worn out after jigging and square-dancing until dawn.[1]

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[1] These accounts are based upon old settlers' narratives in D. Drake's *Pioneer Life in Kentucky* (Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, 1870).

Little Schooling for Children in Old Kentucky

As we said, the pioneer family was always busy. The father hunted or farmed all day; the mother cooked, made clothing, and performed the countless household tasks for a large family; and even the children had many small duties, for there was little time or money to provide a proper schooling for them.

If enough money could be scraped together in one of the little communities, a teacher was hired. But the school term was short, for boys could be spared from the farms only in winter. There were no laws to oblige children to go to school even for a very short term. If a child's home were too far from the school or if the parents were too poor or too ignorant to insist that he go, the frontier boy grew up almost completely uneducated.

However, in most Kentucky communities the poor settlers wanted their children to go to school. Almost always they tried to collect enough money to pay the very meager salary of a teacher. Then, together, they built a one-room, log schoolhouse near the road. The windows were long openings in the logs, covered with oiled paper. There was an open fireplace. The heavy door and splintery floor were made of split timbers.

Perhaps the boys recited some of their lessons to one another out of an old speller. For reading they frequently used only the New Testament. Just before school closed in the spring, there would be a spelling match for the entire school, the best speller taking the head of the class. Then the teacher dismissed the pupils and there was a wild scramble for coonskin caps, bonnets, and dinner baskets. With much jumping and whooping, the boys dashed through the yard and along the road. School was then closed until the following winter.

II. MEANWHILE THE WESTWARD MOVEMENT WAS GOING ON NORTH OF THE OHIO

Even while the Eastern colonists were fighting in the Revolution against England, and while thousands of frontiersmen were making new homes in Kentucky and Tennessee, settlement was also spreading into the region north of the Ohio. First, however, the land had to be taken from the English.

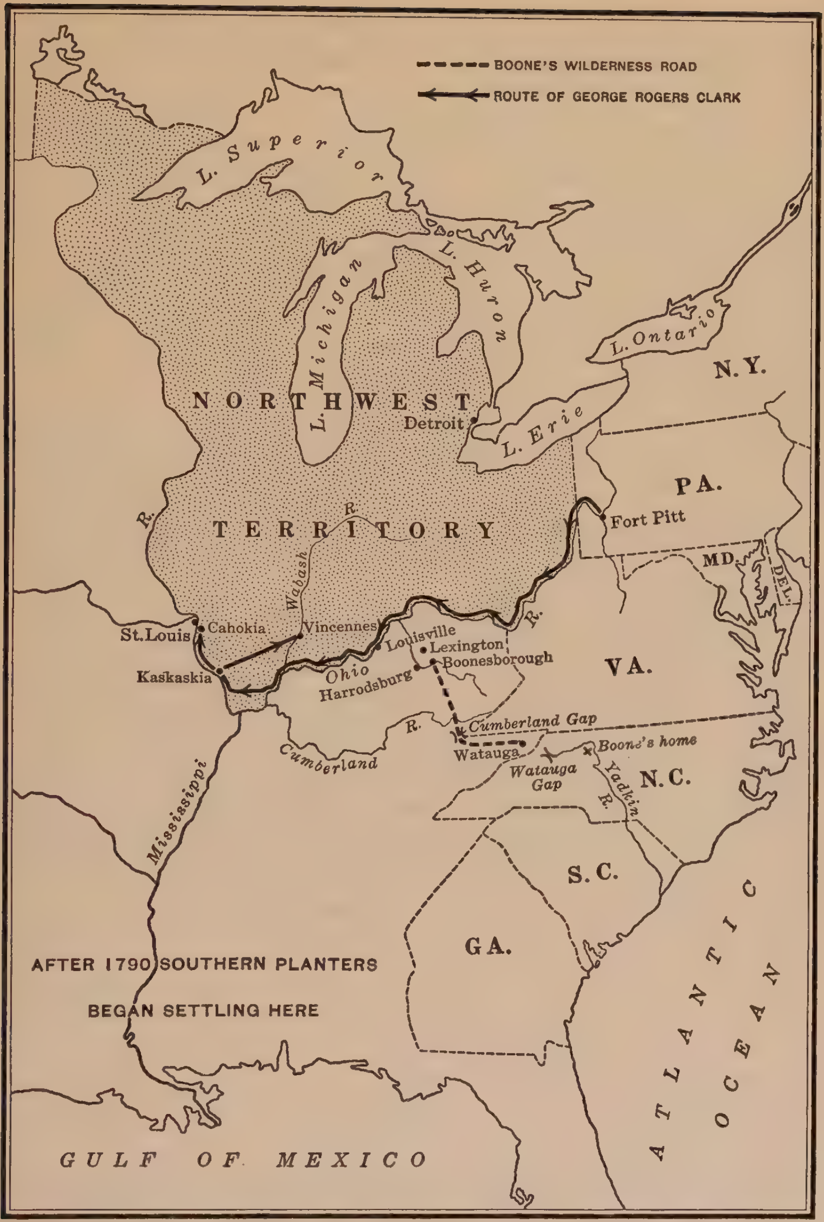
BOONE'S WILDERNESS ROAD
ROUTE OF GEORGE ROGERS CLARK
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Ontario
L. Erie
N.Y.
NORTHWEST TERRITORY
Detroit
PA.
Fort Pitt
MD.
DEL.
R.
Wabash
R.
St.Louis
Cahokia
Vincennes
Louisville
Lexington
Boonesborough
Kaskaskia
Ohio
Harrodsburg
R.
VA.
Cumberland Gap
R.
Cumberland
Watauga
Boone's home
Watauga Gap
Yadkin R.
N.C.
Mississippi
S.C.
GA.
AFTER 1790 SOUTHERN PLANTERS BEGAN SETTLING HERE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO

Fig. 119. Boone's Wilderness Road opened the way for settlement in Kentucky and Tennessee. George Rogers Clark's conquest of the Northwest Territory opened to settlement the lands now covered by Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota

IN 1778–1779 THE KENTUCKIANS UNDER GEORGE ROGERS CLARK CONQUERED THE NORTHWEST TERRITORY

In 1778, while General Washington was grimly fighting the British around New York, George Rogers Clark was carrying the Revolutionary War into the Northwest borderland. Clark was an experienced woodsman with an unfailing stock of courage and energy. With other Virginia frontiersmen he had been living near the Ohio River and wished the colonies to own the territory. Taking a small band of about 175 brave riflemen, he marched against the English forts in the Illinois country.

Courage like Clark's was needed to attempt with less than 200 men to tear from the English a vast region covering nearly 250,000 square miles. His daring seemed sheer madness. Nevertheless, from Fort Pitt (where Pittsburgh now stands) Clark and his men traveled down the Ohio to the Tennessee River. Then, in the middle of winter, he turned northward through frozen country to capture the old French towns of Kaskaskia and Cahokia, then controlled by the English. His daring surprised these and other unsuspecting forts throughout Illinois, and they fell into Clark's hands almost without a struggle.

But the easily won posts were not so easily held, for in the meantime the English general, Hamilton, had moved down from Detroit to Fort Vincennes. Clark had already taken the town and moved on northward. Hamilton decided to spend the winter there, for he thought the cold weather no time for fighting. In the spring he would sweep the tiny American force out of Illinois.

Hamilton had every reason to think that he was safe in Vincennes, and he dismissed a great many of his troops. But he did not know Clark. When the latter heard that the English forces were partially disbanded, he decided that the time was right for a decisive blow. He would march across country, surprise Hamilton and his small garrison, and retake Vincennes.

A weaker man than Clark would never have considered such a task. It was bitterly cold weather, he had but 170 ragged men, and yet he was determined to cross the distance of about 200 miles of wilderness. The rivers were swollen and icy. The troops had no shelter against the weather; they carried no food with them, so they had to depend upon shooting wild game; and often they were forced to wade in freezing water up to their waists. To cross the larger streams, like the Wabash, they had to cut trees and build rafts.

They were delayed greatly, and the spirits of the men fell, until they were on the point of turning back. Yet Clark managed by some miracle to keep up their courage. Finally, in spite of having marched and almost slept in cold water for days, they reached the British headquarters.

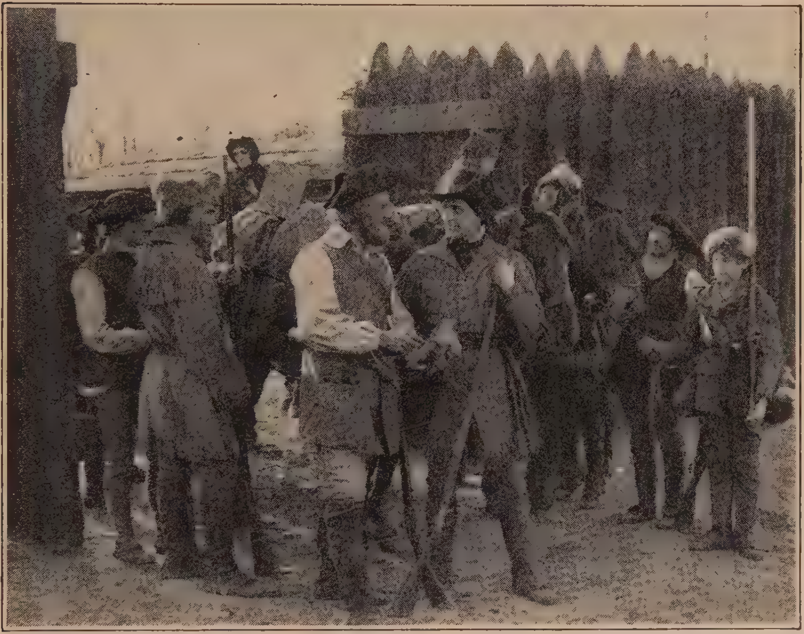

FIG. 120. This photograph is taken from a moving picture. It shows the stockade at Harrodsburg on the western frontier of Virginia. In the foreground George Rogers Clark is represented talking to an old pioneer who is about to move into the Northwest Territory. (From "Vincennes," one of the Chronicles of America Photoplays. Copyright. By permission Yale University Press)

The ragged, half-starved troop of backwoodsmen attacked. . . . The battle was short. . . . Hamilton surrendered. . . . Clark's courage and daring had brought victory from what seemed a hopeless situation.

With Vincennes in Clark's hand, the land which is today

Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio was held by the Americans. The day of France in the New World was over. The day of England in the Northwest Territory was over also. When the Treaty of Paris was signed, in 1783, this Northwest Territory was included in the land which Great Britain acknowledged to be the "United States."

Hardly had Clark won the Northwest Territory before pioneers came across the mountains to build their homesteads there. The day of a new country was beginning. Shortly this region was to become the home of millions of Americans. There was scarcely a mile of it that would not be covered either by productive farms, factories, mines, or residences.

American Settlers were moving into the Ohio Valley

In the 1780's many frontiersmen, with their wives and children, were crossing the Ohio River from Kentucky. Setting down their few belongings on the fertile creek bottoms or flatlands along the river, they began to clear land and put up homes.

These westward movers felt that the land was free. They had settled it; so they thought it was theirs. To be sure, the Indians claimed it, but let them fight for it if they wanted to keep it. "First come, first served," said the backwoodsmen. So they took the best pieces of land, asking permission from no one.

In the Northwest, too, the Indian Tribes united against the Settlers

With bitterness and hatred the Indians of the Northwest Territory watched the advance of the white men. To be sure, after the Revolution was over the temporary American government tried to make treaties with them. They wanted the Indians to agree to sell the land or at least to grant the right to settle it. But the white settlers refused to keep the treaties which the government succeeded in making.

War flamed throughout the Northwest. Raids, burnings, and massacres occurred on both sides for years. The Indians proudly insisted that they needed and must have the land, that they must have the Ohio River as their southern boundary or they would never cease to fight.

In 1794 ("Mad") Anthony Wayne, one of Washington's former generals, defeated the Indians at the battle of Fallen Timbers and made an agreement with them by which they were to have a little less than half of the territory they had fought for. He succeeded, because of his friendliness with the Indians, in keeping peace in the Northwest for fifteen years.

AFTER 1800 TECUMSEH TRIED TO UNITE THE TRIBES TO HOLD BACK THE PIONEERS

Is it any wonder that the Indian boys who watched events along the frontier during the time they were growing to manhood hated the white men? One Indian boy in particular kept to himself his dreams of revenge, until by the time he had become a powerful warrior he had worked out a plan to drive white men forever from Indian lands.

The young warrior was named Tecumseh, "the wild cat that leaps upon its prey." He had seen the Indian tribes forced to yield great tracts of land along the Ohio River. He knew that his people had fought for every foot of land, but he saw that bit by bit their heritage was slipping from them to these more numerous and more powerful palefaces. In 1804 and 1805 the Indians ceded more and more land to the United States government.

Then lawless white settlers began to make war on the Indians and to settle on Indian lands in open defiance of the government's treaty. The tribes soon realized that they were helpless to prevent the white settlement.

The red men were in despair, but Tecumseh was at work on his great plan. From one end of the country to the other he traveled — south to the Gulf of Mexico, west to the Rocky Mountains. Everywhere he preached to the Indians that their only hope was to unite. He begged them to form a Warriors' Congress to govern all the warriors of all the tribes. Thus by acting together and fighting as a unit, he said, they would be strong enough to drive back the settlers.

In 1809 more of the Indian hunting grounds were ceded to the United States. The league of Indian warriors grew. In 1810 Tecumseh, who was now the chief of many tribes, held a conference with Governor Harrison of the Northwest Territory. During this conference Tecumseh said:

> I have made myself what I am; and I would that I could make the red people as great as the conceptions of my mind, when I think of the Great Spirit that rules over all. I would not then come to Governor Harrison to ask him to tear the treaty [of 1809]; but I would say to him, Brother, you have liberty to return to your own country. Once there was no white man in all this country: then it belonged to red men, children of the same parents, placed on it by the Great Spirit to keep it, to travel over it, to eat its fruits, and fill it with the same race — once a happy race, but now made miserable by the white people, who are never contented, but always encroaching. They had driven us from the great salt water, forced us over the mountains, and would shortly push us into the lakes — but we are determined to go no further. The only way to stop this evil is for all red men to unite in claiming a common and equal right in the land, as it was at first, and should be now — for it never was divided, but belongs to all. . . . Any sale not made by all is not good.[1]

The white settlers were worried by the power of Tecumseh. They met the Indian braves in battle at Tippecanoe. There was a bloody struggle, but neither side won. Both sides then gathered strength and waited for the time to strike a final blow.

During the years 1812 to 1815 the United States was fighting a war with England. As England wanted to win back the Northwest Territory which the Indians also wanted, Tecumseh united his warriors with the English soldiers. The United States won the war, and the Indians, along with the English, lost their hold in the Northwest Territory. The power of both the English and the Indians in that territory was gone forever.

THE GOVERNMENT GOT POSSESSION OF THE LAND AND PASSED THE FAMOUS NORTHWEST ORDINANCE

The national government tried to stop the seizing of land by squatters

When Americans moved into lands held by the Indians they were called settlers. When they settled on land which belonged to the American government they were called "squatters."

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[1] Frederic A. Ogg, *The Old Northwest*, pp. 141–142, Vol. XIX of The Chronicles of America series. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1918.

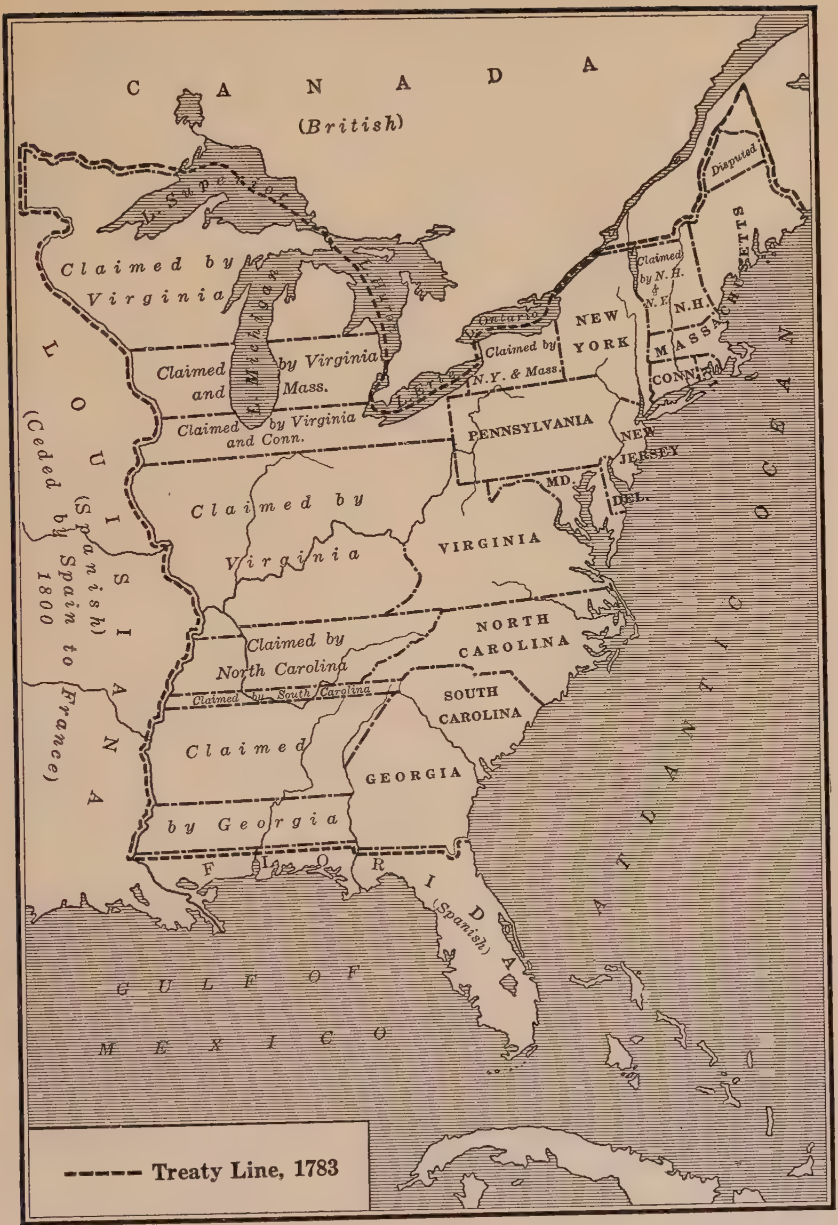
CANADA
(British)
L. Superior
L. Michigan
L. Huron
L. Ontario
L. Erie
Claimed by Virginia
Claimed and by Virginia and Mass.
Claimed by Virginia and Conn.
Claimed by Virginia
Claimed by North Carolina
Claimed by South Carolina
Claimed by Georgia
LOUISIANA
(Spanish)
(Ceded by Spain to France) 1800
Disputed
Claimed by N.H. & N.Y.
NEW YORK
Claimed by N.Y. & Mass.
N.H.
MASSACHUSETTS
CONN.
R.I.
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
MD.
DEL.
VIRGINIA
NORTH CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
(Spanish)
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
----- Treaty Line, 1783

FIG. 121. In 1783 the United States owned all the land from Canada to Florida and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi. Many of the thirteen states claimed vast tracts in the newly acquired territory

But the squatters, who rushed to take the best land in the Northwest Territory, failed to take into account the newly formed United States government. In the next volume of this history you will read the story of the formation of that government between 1783 and 1789. We can only tell you here that after six years of discussion among themselves, the States joined together under the Constitution of the United States of America and adopted their present form of government. In 1789 George Washington became the first president of the new nation.

But even before that important event a temporary government existed, known as the Confederation. The officers in the government were keeping in mind the Northwest Territory. In 1787, when the representatives in the Congress of the Confederation met in Philadelphia, they understood clearly what a prize they had won in the lands between the Appalachians and the Mississippi.

You remember that in the Treaty of Paris, signed in 1783, England ceded to the thirteen American states her possessions south of the Great Lakes and as far west as the Mississippi River. The map of figure 121 shows that Georgia, North and South Carolina, Virginia, Connecticut, and Massachusetts all claimed tracts of land the western boundaries of which extended at least as far as the Mississippi. Indeed, the charters which had been granted to them by the kings of England before anyone knew the extent of America had stated that their land should reach as far west as "the Great South Sea." Through her original grant and the conquests of George Rogers Clark Virginia claimed the Northwest Territory also.

After the Revolution these states insisted on their claims in order to be able to pay off the soldiers to whom they owed considerable back pay. All the states needed money to pay the loans which they had made in order to carry on the war, and they saw that money could be obtained by selling the land of the Northwest Territory to the settlers.

Maryland, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, New Jersey, New York, and Delaware opposed the Western claims of the first colonies. Maryland was especially insistent that land in the West should be "considered a common stock to be parceled out by

Congress into free, convenient, and independent governments as the wisdom of this body shall hereafter direct." After four years of argument among the states a new land policy was made for the United States by the Congress of the Confederation. It agreed that the vast territory was the property of all the states together and that it must be properly surveyed and recorded. A law was passed called the Northwest Ordinance, which provided that the Northwest Territory be surveyed and divided. The free days of "settle where you please" were nearing an end.

Soon after the law was passed government surveyors went into the Ohio valley and measured and staked out the land. First, townships were laid out, each one six miles square, totaling 36 square miles of land. Second, each township was subdivided into 36 sections of one square mile each, that is, 640 acres. Third, each section was divided into four quarter-sections of 160 acres each, as shown in figure 122.

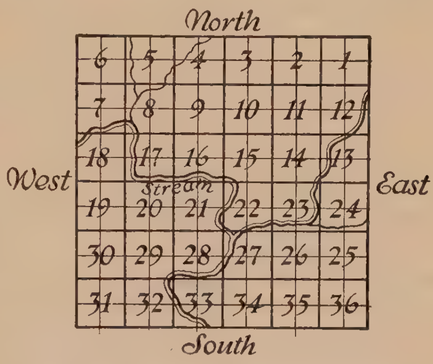

FIG. 122. Division of a township into quarter-sections

Henceforth settlers in the Northwest Territory must buy their land. They might choose the spot they wished, go to the nearest government land office, and buy the piece selected.

An English traveler who crossed through the western country about 1800 tells us that this system often worked great hardships on poor families:

> The poor emigrant, having collected the eighty dollars, repairs to the land office, and enters his quarter-section, then works his way without another "cent" in his pocket, to the solitary spot, which is to be his future abode, in a two-horse wagon, containing his family, and his little all, consisting of a few blankets, a skillet, his rifle, and his axe.[1]

Many a pioneer was not able to pay $80, the first payment on a quarter-section of land. The life which the frontiersmen led made it extremely difficult for them to have ready money. But these fearless people were not to be kept from the promised land by a paltry $80. They continued to squat on the land of the Northwest Territory, clearing it and building shacks in calm defiance of the land offices and the laws.

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[1] Morris Birbeck, *Notes on a Journey in America*, pp. 60–61. James Ridgeway, Piccadilly, London, 1818.

Furthermore, the land offices were not always easy to reach. Many of them were in the Eastern states. So if a poor settler should be so fortunate as to have enough money to buy the land, he must take a long and troublesome journey in order to do so legally. This made honesty very expensive. After long disputes, however, the land offices were moved to the frontier, where the poor settlers could easily go and pay their money.

How big land companies influenced the Congress

During the first years of land settlement in the West, Eastern speculators saw a chance to make "easy" money there. The shrewd business men of the States thought, "Why not buy up large tracts of land at a low price and sell small lots of it at a high price to the settlers?" A group of New England soldiers who had not been paid for their services during the war had the same idea.

In 1786 the soldiers formed the Ohio Company. They chose a representative, the Reverend Manasseh Cutler, to act for them in the Congress, which was then in session in New York. Their representative was to purchase a large strip of land.

The Reverend Manasseh Cutler was able to purchase 1,500,000 acres. But in order to get that much land he had to agree to take an additional tract of about 3,500,000 acres which was to be transferred to another company formed by Congressmen and their friends. Thus the Congressional representatives of the people were also making private fortunes out of public lands.

Cutler recorded the transaction in his diary:

> We obtained the grant of near five millions of acres . . . one million and a half for the Ohio Company and the remainder for a private speculation, in which many of the principal characters of America are concerned. Without connecting this speculation, similar terms and advantages could not have been obtained for the Ohio Company.

For this land the Ohio Company paid a price equivalent to about eight cents an acre![1] They sold it to settlers for many times that amount. Thus speculators were making fortunes out of public property.

It was at this time that Congress was busy framing the Northwest Ordinance to provide not only for the division and sale of the land of the Northwest Territory but also for three to five new state governments.[2]

The law stated that as soon as any one of the main divisions of the Territory should have acquired a population of 60,000, it was to be admitted to the United States of America on an equal footing with the original states in all respects and was to "be at liberty to form a permanent constitution and state government."

In the meantime the new government set up in the Territory made all settlers freemen regardless of religious beliefs. It also provided that every man had the right to trial by jury, that schools were to be established, and that the government was to set aside one section of land in every township to help pay for them. The income from the land was to go into a school fund. That provision of the Northwest Ordinance marked one advance in lawmaking. Another advance was the provision that slavery should not be allowed in the Territory.

The Flow of Settlers over the Mountains increased rapidly

No sooner had the Ohio Company and the other eastern companies received from the Congress their immense holdings in the Northwest Territory than they began to advertise land in the most extravagant terms. Throughout New England many people, fired with the desire to own better land, organized emigrant bands to move into the Ohio country. Revolutionary soldiers, in particular, rushed to purchase and settle land.

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[1] The price stated in the sale was "two thirds of a dollar an acre." Congress agreed, however, to accept colonial paper money as payment for this land; the paper certificates had decreased so much in value that the actual price paid for the land was not more than eight or nine cents an acre.

[2] In the land which was included in the Northwest Territory are now the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. The northeast corner of Minnesota was also a part of it.

One well-remembered party was that led by General Rufus Putnam. In 1788, with 50 land-hungry settlers, he crossed New York and Pennsylvania. He stopped at a little settlement near Fort Pitt and then journeyed down the Ohio to the mouth of the Muskingum River. There he and his followers founded the little hamlet of Marietta.

In the Ohio country new settlements soon appeared in which New Englanders, New Yorkers, Virginians, and Kentuckians mingled. Thousands of settlers followed the first comers. On rafts, barges, and flatboats, often made by the emigrants themselves, they floated their household goods down the Ohio until they found a suitable spot along the banks where they might land and make their homes.

Those who could not pay for the land upon which they had built their cabins found that they had to fight not only Indians but the land companies as well. As early as 1785 Colonel Harmar of Fort Pitt sent a troop of soldiers down the Ohio to drive off the squatters. That was not a difficult task for the soldiers, but it was quite another matter to keep the squatters away. Any number of expeditions helped the government but little to rid the country of the bold pioneers, for the frontiersmen had come to make their homes in the rich Northwest land, and they intended to stay.

So the westward movement rolled onward.

An early settler tells us that the western territory was rapidly filling with farms and hamlets:

> When we arrived at Mr. May's deer lick, in the autumn of 1788, there were no inhabitants in that part of the country. But immigration . . . was a constant, not a mere wet-weather stream; and within the six years that elapsed, the number of settlers had increased to such an extent that one could not wander a mile in any direction, without meeting a clearing of two to ten acres, often enclosed with a brush fence, and designated as a human residence by a one-story unhewed log cabin, with the latch string always out, and the usual number of ragged children around the door, or playing, in warm weather, under the shade of some shell-bark hickory or venerable sugar-tree, which might perchance have escaped the axe of the destroyer.[1]

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[1] D. Drake, *Pioneer Life in Kentucky*. Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, 1870.

MEANWHILE KENTUCKY AND TENNESSEE WERE BECOMING WELL-POPULATED STATES

In 1792 thousands of pioneers had lumbered over the Wilderness Road which Boone and his men had built. Kentucky was no longer the raw pioneer country of Boone's day. As you have learned 74,000 people were living there by 1790, and Kentucky was admitted to the Union as a state in 1792. Louisville, Lexington, Boonesborough, and Harrodsburg were no longer rough, log forts surrounded by a few log cabins. Louisville was a hamlet which actually boasted several two-story houses with porches, yards. and vegetable gardens.

Four years later (1796) the entire Northwest Territory had been divided and Tennessee, with more than the necessary 60,000 people, became the sixteenth state in the United States of America.

North of the Ohio as well as south of it the frontier was giving way to peaceful villages, towns, and farms. A New England pioneer tells us his first impressions of the busy river port of Cincinnati about 1800:

> Cincinnati is no sooner seen than the importance of the town is perceived. A large steam grist mill, three large steamboats on the stocks, and two more on the Kentucky side of the river, and a large ferry boat . . . were the first objects which attracted my attention. The beach is lined with keel boats, large arks for carrying produce, family boats, and rafts of timber. On shore the utmost bustle prevails, with drays carrying imported goods, salt, iron, and timber, up to the town, and in bringing down pork, flour, etc., to be put aboard of boats for New Orleans.
>
> The streets are laid out in a rectangular form, and are enlivened by drays, waggons, and an active people. The houses are nearly all of brick and timber: about two hundred new ones have been built in the course of the year. Merchants' shops are numerous, and well frequented. The noise of wheel carriages in the streets, and of the carpenter, the blacksmith, and the cooper, make a busy din. Such an active scene I never expected to see amongst the back woods of America.[1]

Ten years before that time Indiana and Illinois had been the wild frontier. But people had now settled so densely in Kentucky,

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[1] Reprinted by permission of the publishers, The Arthur H. Clark Company, from James Flint, "Letters from America," in Reuben Gold Thwaites's *Early Western Travels*.

Tennessee, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois that hunters and traders moved on across the Mississippi River. Even there in the West they could not find the solitude which they preferred to settled living. The buffaloes had been slaughtered by the thousands, and handicrafts and farming were replacing hunting, trapping, and fishing as means of making a living. Both in Indiana and Illinois there were many settlements which did not have stockaded forts to protect them. Rough, new wagon roads joining the settlements led out of the towns in many directions. North and south the hunters found the dense forests dotted with small clearings. In each clearing there was a cluster of log cabins which marked the beginnings of new Middle Western American towns.

III. THE TIDE OF SETTLEMENT REACHED SOUTHWESTWARD ALSO

South of the new states of Kentucky and Tennessee, along the Gulf of Mexico, stretched rich plains and lowlands. That country had been the stronghold of the Southeastern Indian tribes and the coast-land possessions of Spain until 1803. The American pioneers, however, had little fear of Indian or Spanish claims. They decided that the Indians must be driven back. As for Spain, her feeble grip on the Southeast had been lost when her ally, France, lost the French and Indian War.

Already, during the years when Kentuckians and Tennesseeans were crossing the Ohio to settle in the Northwest Territory, their friends and neighbors were moving south to the lands bordering on the Gulf. There they lived, as all frontiersmen lived, by the gun, the ax, and the plow. Imagine the pioneers you have already read about moving south instead of north, and you will see Mississippi and Alabama in those early years.

How the Planters of the Southeast moved to the Far South

Shortly after 1800 many Southern settlers and plantation-owners of Virginia and the Carolinas joined the westward land-seeking movement. Over mountains and through forests wound caravans of carriages and wagons, following the paths of the earlier pedestrians. In the carriages might be seen elegant white men and women. In the wagons, astride piles of household equipment, rode many black slaves. In other streams went ragged pioneers who crossed the trails on foot with their goods loaded on pack horses.

Many planters from Virginia and the Carolinas found that their lands were worn out. They were no longer able to make money from their plantations. They and their fathers had farmed so wastefully that the old fields finally had to be abandoned. Even very large estates would no longer support a Southern family and its slaves.

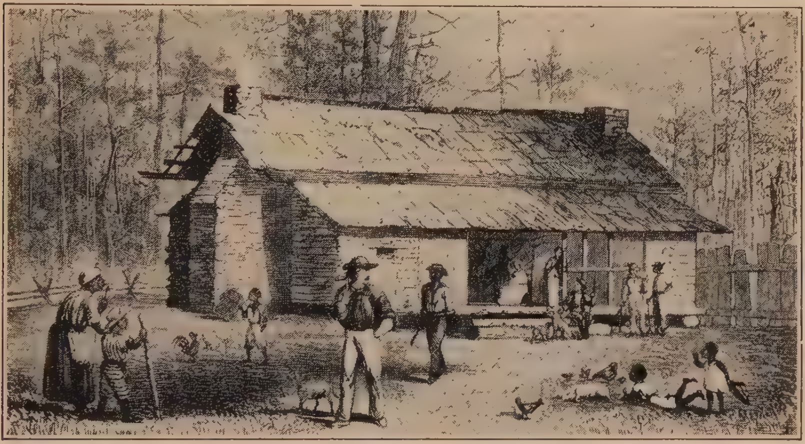


Fig. 123. A pioneer home in the far South. To this fertile region many of the planters of Virginia and the Carolinas moved after 1800 with their families and their slaves. The growing season was long, and the climate and soil well fitted for growing cotton. (From an old engraving)

The report of fresh, fertile land, excellent for raising cotton, promised new fortunes to the planters. Thus many of the aristocratic families of the coast states packed up their belongings and moved to the rich bottom land along the Gulf of Mexico.

Many of the new plantations prospered immediately. First of all, there was the task of clearing the gently rolling plains. This was not all accomplished at once, of course. The owners planned to add each year to the cultivated cotton fields. Furthermore, there were many fine groves of trees along the coast —

walnuts, magnolias, beeches, yellow pines, hickories, elms, and gum trees — most of which made valuable timber.

The first small crops flourished. The soil was rich, the temperature warm, and the rainfall plentiful. One planter in Mississippi, named Thomas, was very successful. His slaves worked only five and a half days a week in the warm, semitropical climate. Prizes of money were distributed among the workers as rewards for unusually large amounts of cotton gathered. If a slave picked 400 pounds of cotton in one day, he was given a five-dollar gold piece. There were smaller prizes for smaller pickings. The rivalry for prizes lasted during the cotton-picking season of from four to five months. Some of the slaves who had been trained from childhood to pick cotton were able to work with both hands at once, and it was not unusual for them to pick 300 pounds in a day.

To do the work of the cotton fields black workers were brought into Alabama and Mississippi from the east. Plantation-owners would journey north and east to buy slaves. Often they bought as many as 50 Negroes at once.

Slaves walked the entire distance from the coast states to the Gulf plantations, except where it was possible to go in flatboats. At night they either camped out or slept on the floor of a public house.

When the tired slave gang reached their new home in the Gulf country, they frequently found their lot very unpleasant. The plantation was huge, the climate was warmer than in Virginia, and many masters kept hired overseers to force the slaves to work. In the older Southern states the masters themselves had more frequently acted as overseers and had been less strict than their employees.

The small farmers resented the coming of the large planters

The first pioneer families in the Gulf territory did not welcome the old Southern planters with their troops of slaves. They saw the best land being turned into vast cotton fields, while they were crowded back upon poorer strips. Furthermore, the poor farmers were proud, and they resented the fact that their wealthy neighbors commanded a drove of black workers while they themselves toiled with their hands.

An incident is told of a house-raising that was being given by a poor white settler. He invited a wealthy planter who had recently arrived in the community. The latter seriously offended the poor pioneer by bringing with him twenty slaves, whom he ordered to do the house-raising. The Negroes worked under the planter's command until the cabin was completed. The slave-owner was never invited to another house-raising, for he had misunderstood the spirit of community work.

On another occasion a poor farmer in the neighborhood got "in the grass," as the Southerners said when grass threatened to choke out the young cotton plants. Once more a planter with his slave workmen went to the rescue, and in a short time the farmer's field was completely cleared. Yet the farmer was angry. He said that he would have been grateful if the planter had worked in the field as an equal, but he was humiliated to see the planter seated on a horse, with gloves on, directing his slaves.

HOW DID THE "GEOGRAPHY" OF THE WEST LEAD THE PEOPLE TO SETTLE WHERE THEY DID?

Why did the squatters settle down in the Ohio valley? in Kentucky? in Alabama and Mississippi and Louisiana? Why was it that the frontiersmen settled the land in certain spots and avoided others?

The answer is the old, old story of "geography."

The pioneers settled always near easy transportation routes — near the rivers. In 1790 and 1800 settlements clustered about the banks of the Ohio, the Muskingum, the Tennessee, the Wabash, the Illinois, the Alabama, and the Mississippi rivers. These rivers and their valleys gave the newcomers their first routes of travel.

Furthermore, the bountiful crops which the valleys yielded could be carried along by these easy water routes to the cities and towns of the East and South. There were no canals, no railroads, and only a few rough, rutted roads. The rivers of the Northwest and the Southwest, like those which Washington had explored in Virginia, could be used cheaply for moving freight. Year after year as settlement grew the waterways became ever busier with traffic.

But there were other reasons than easy travel why settlements grew along water courses. The soil there was easier to cultivate and it produced better crops than that of the highlands, for the top soil was richer and more level.

Thus we meet geographic factors again! Fertility of soil, level land, cheap and easy transportation — these determined that the settlers should take land along river courses.

The same geographic factors also helped to fix *the way the people lived* after they had settled — the crops that they raised, their industries, and the materials used in their homes and in their clothing. Thus, in the South, the very long hot seasons, the very rainy climate, and the rich soil determined that the planters should turn increasingly to the raising of cotton. Correspondingly, the cooler climate and the moderate rainfall of the Ohio valley, the fertile loamy soil and the broad level character of the plains, were largely responsible for the development of a great corn-and-wheat belt through the middle states. Likewise the shorter growing seasons and the sandy character of the soil turned the farmers of the northern part of the Northwest Territory to fruit-growing, haying, vegetable-raising, and dairying.

Again and again throughout the land history of America the geographic factors of winds, temperature, rainfall, soil fertility, and topography helped to determine the agriculture of the various sections.

So it was that the First Settlements were established beyond the Appalachian Mountains

Thus the great westward movement began. Land-hungry men, eager for a better living, started the conquest of the continent. The foundation of the present American nation was being laid.

Slowly at first the tide of human migration rolled over the mountains. In tiny rivulets the little streams of humanity trickled through gaps in the ranges, but steadily as the closing years of the eighteenth century followed one another the little streams increased in volume. The year 1800 had scarcely begun when the main highways of traffic witnessed the passing of a human flood of westward-bound pioneers.

Thus in 1803 Ohio became a state. In 1812 Louisiana joined the Union. In 1816 Indiana was admitted, followed by Mississippi in 1817. In 1818 the frontier had moved hundreds of miles westward, and Illinois had entered the Union. In the next year Alabama followed; Maine joined in 1820 and Missouri in 1821.

By 1821 all the land between the Atlantic and the Mississippi had been so well settled that all except the northern half of the Northwest Territory had been divided into states. The state system had even crossed the Mississippi into Missouri.

Thus the first trickles of settlement beyond the mountain barrier swelled to a vast westward movement which we shall continue to follow until the boundaries of our country are completely rounded out

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

BALDWIN, JAMES. The Conquest of the Old Northwest. American Book Company, New York, 1901. The Ohio and Indiana settlements.

BRUCE, H. ADDINGTON. Daniel Boone and the Wilderness Road. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1910. A lively biography of one of the most interesting men in our history.

COOPER, J. F. The Leather Stocking Tales. A well-known series of pioneer and Indian stories.

DRAKE, DANIEL. Pioneer Life in Kentucky. Robert Clarkc & Co., Cincinnati, 1870. How an old pioneer described his early experiences in Kentucky.

HOWELLS, WILLIAM DEAN. Stories of Ohio. American Book Company, New York, 1897. Interesting stories of the pioneer period and of famous men of Ohio.

MCMURRY, CHARLES A. Pioneers of the Mississippi Valley. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1904. Stories from the early history of the Mississippi Valley.

MORRIS, CHARLES. Heroes of Discovery in America (revised and enlarged edition). J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. Short, interesting stories of Daniel Boone.

PRICE, LILLIAN L. Lads and Lassies of Other Days. Silver, Burdett and Company, New York, 1905. Some very interesting stories from the early colonial time through the Revolution.

PURCELL, M. C. G. Stories of Old Kentucky. American Book Company, New York, 1915. Short stories of Boone and other pioneers.

ROOSEVELT, THEODORE. The Winning of the West. The Current Literature Publishing Company, New York, 1905. Volumes I and II contain many interesting stories of the pioneers of Kentucky.

SMEDES, SUSAN D. Memorials of a Southern Planter. James Pott & Co., New York. An interesting account of life on a plantation in Mississippi and of the trip from Virginia to Mississippi.

THOMPSON, MAURICE. Stories of Indiana. American Book Company, New York. Entertaining tales and anecdotes.

CHAPTER XIII

THE LAST LAP OF THE WESTWARD MOVEMENT: BEYOND THE MISSISSIPPI, 1790–1860

While the region of the Mississippi and Ohio valleys was being filled with prospering farms and bustling small towns, the westward movement was sweeping onward unhindered. As soon as the Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois territory became partly settled, the restless hunters and trappers moved on still farther westward. The forests of Kentucky and Tennessee were no sooner dotted with homesteads than the "long hunters" crossed the Mississippi into Missouri. No sooner had planters begun to build a cotton kingdom in Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana than the Southern pioneers moved into Texas.

So it went from north to south — the restless frontiersmen continued westward in advance of the settlers.

Once more we meet the old settler Daniel Boone, who with his son had just been exploring beyond the Mississippi.

Early in the morning of a day in 1799 the valley of the Kanawha River (in the present state of West Virginia) was astir. The roads were filled with foot travelers and men on horseback, sometimes with a woman perched on the pillion behind. On the river, too, boats were making their way up or down the stream, but apparently all going toward some central points. What was the great event which had awakened the Kanawha valley from its usual quiet and set it astir so early in the morning?

Just an old man. The news had been spread about that a man of 65 was going west, beyond the Mississippi, into a land unknown to these people who themselves were western pioneers. The old man was Daniel Boone.

Kentucky and the western part of Virginia were filling up. They were no longer the unsettled wilderness which Boone had traveled years before. Moreover, his early claims to land had been disregarded. Shrewder and more worldly wise men had got hold of the lands which he had claimed. So Boone had decided to move west again far beyond the settlements of men. Once more he could travel through the wilderness and hunt buffalo, bear, and deer.

The settlers who were out bright and early on the roads and on the river had come to say good-by to Daniel Boone. It is said that when they parted from him "they bade him a farewell as affectionate as though he were departing for another world."

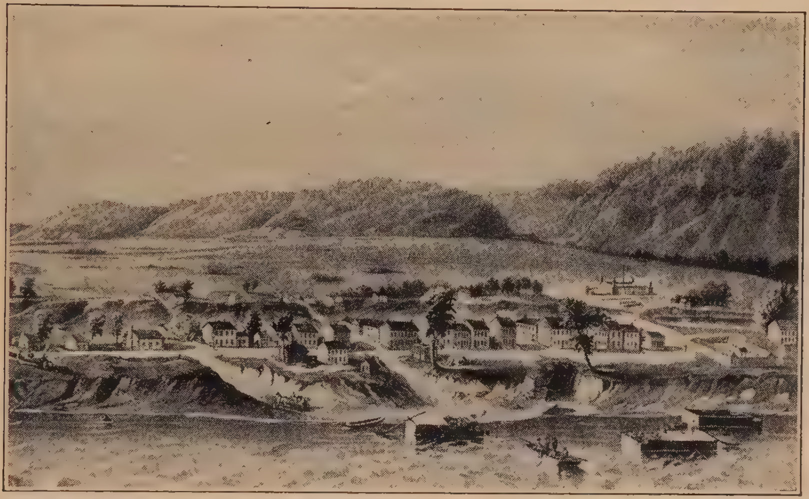


FIG. 124. The town of Cincinnati as Daniel Boone saw it on his way down the Ohio River. Cincinnati was then about eleven years old. (From a lithograph after a painting by A. J. Swing)

With household goods and cattle aboard their flatboats, the Boones moved slowly down the Kanawha and into the Ohio. As they passed each settlement along the way, the people came out to see their old friend or the man of whom they had heard so often.

And so down to Cincinnati, where he was again greeted by friends and admirers.

"Why are you going west at your age?" someone asked him.

"Too crowded here," he answered; "I want more elbow room."

Then on down the Ohio to the Mississippi and up the Missouri to a place where he had been given a large grant of land by the Spanish government.

Again Daniel Boone lived on broad, open prairies amid the solitude of the wilderness. He had no neighbors, and the only white faces he saw were those of friendly traders who like himself loved the frontier above all things.

Thus the Westward Movement was a Series of Waves

Ever westward swept the tide of humanity. Like the waves of the sea advancing on the shore were the hunters, trail-blazers, and lone homesteaders. No sooner had one wave broken on a new western frontier than, like the rising tide, there came another and another until the Pacific Ocean was reached. There the movement stopped, for it was impossible to go farther west — unless it were to Hawaii or the Philippines!

The first settlers set their traps in woods far beyond the farthest clearing. During the year they gathered a fine collection of furs and hunted buffalo, elk, deer, and wild fowl for food. At the end of the season they packed their peltry and turned eastward to the settlements, where they sold their goods, enjoyed a few days of hilarity, and turned back once more into the woods.

Lone settlers and trail-blazers followed the hunters westward. They too wanted plenty of elbow room. They liked the silent solitude of the forest. Their motto was, "Move west when you can hear your neighbor's shotgun."

Behind them came the horde of land-hungry settlers — restless farmers, to whom the fields far away always looked greenest. They came first in small groups, seeking the "better land over yonder." Soon tiny frontier hamlets grew into villages, villages swelled into towns, and the movement westward went on year after year. Like a swarm of hungry locusts, the pioneers descended upon good, unused land and made it theirs.

Behind the westward-moving frontier, cities grew up rapidly. In the Ohio valley, so recently a wilderness, great lusty towns like Cincinnati and Pittsburgh were stretching out.

Until 1800 Spain controlled the Louisiana Territory

Thus even before 1800 the thoughts of American frontiersmen were turning to the great plains beyond the Mississippi. But, as you already know, after the close of the French and Indian War, France had ceded to Spain this vast territory, including the city of New Orleans at the mouth of the Mississippi.

Between 1785 and 1800 many hardy American frontiersmen were taking their produce down the Ohio to the Mississippi. This was the best, in fact, the only, outlet for them, unless they made the difficult trip back across the Appalachians. In New Orleans, however, the Spanish officials were putting high duties upon American trade. By 1800, therefore, American frontiersmen began to resent Spain's ownership of New Orleans. They longed to control the city and to have a free outlet for the great produce of the teeming valleys.

The Purchase of the Louisiana Territory, 1803

During the 1790's the American government was constantly receiving complaints from Western settlers that the Spaniards were hindering their trade at New Orleans. The traders demanded impatiently that the United States government take over control of the Mississippi River as well as the regions along both sides of it, for only in that way could the settlers feel sure of a market for their goods. Furthermore, they were eager to take up the lands west of the river and had already been settling there.

President Washington and later President Jefferson recognized that the Mississippi was a most important line of trade in North America and that New Orleans was its most important market. By 1800 a large proportion of American trade passed through New Orleans. Jefferson wrote at one time that the possessor of New Orleans was "our natural and habitual enemy." He meant by this that it was so important for the people of the United States to have free access to the ocean outlet of the Mississippi that whoever might hinder the free use of it could be regarded as an enemy.

In 1800 Spain gave back to France the entire Louisiana territory including New Orleans. That was a blow to Americans since in 1800 France under Napoleon Bonaparte was the most powerful country in Europe. No sooner was Louisiana returned to its former owner than the Mississippi and the port of New Orleans were closed to American shipping.

Then the frontiersmen of the Mississippi Valley were truly in trouble. They set up a vigorous protest and threatened that unless President Jefferson made some arrangement to reopen the port to them they would try to take it from the French by armed force.

In 1803 Jefferson commissioned three prominent Americans to ask Napoleon for trading privileges at the mouth of the Mississippi. The Americans were James Monroe, later to be president of the United States, Charles Pinckney, and Robert Livingston.

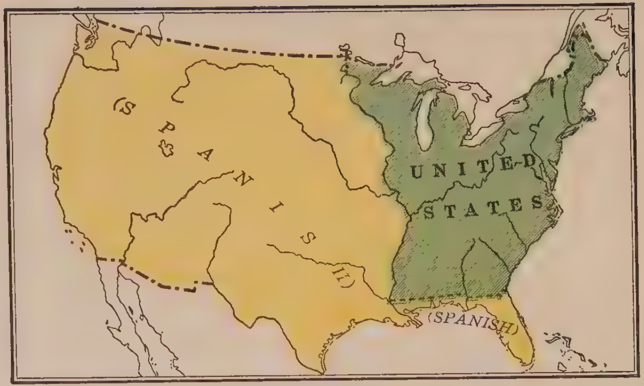
Two of the three statesmen were already in Europe. They met Monroe on his arrival and went to Paris to interview Napoleon, then the most important person in the world. This brilliant leader of the successful French armies had recently placed himself at the head of the government. Within a few years he had come to rule not only France but nearly all Europe. There remained only England to bow before him. If England fell, no one could tell what might happen. The eye of the conqueror might rove toward North America in search of new worlds.

The Americans arrived in France at a moment when fortune was most in their favor. Napoleon had found his English enemy difficult to conquer, and he needed great sums of money to carry on his wars. He astonished the Americans by offering them not a trading treaty but New Orleans itself and the Louisiana territory — all for the ridiculous sum of about $15,000,000![1]

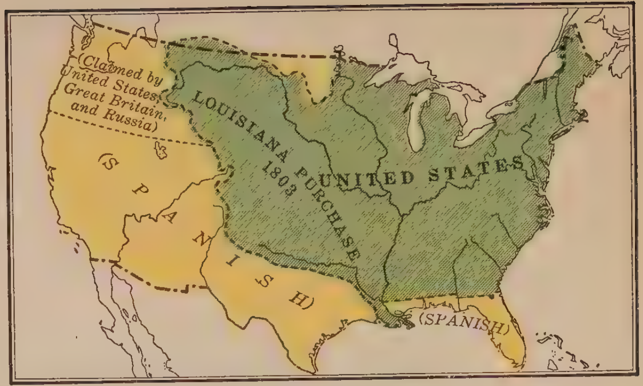
President Jefferson was informed that his emissaries had accepted the offer. It remained only for him and the Senate to approve the agreement and raise the money. The bargain was too good to let slip. Even though the country was still deeply in debt, though the new Constitution gave the President and the

---

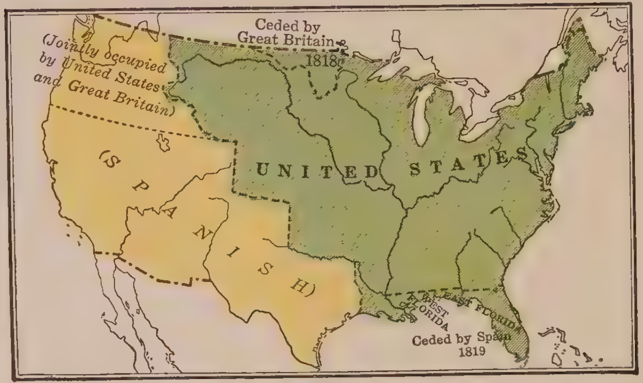
[1] The United States agreed to pay $11,250,000 for this land and issued 6 per cent bonds to cover the amount. It was also agreed that certain claims which American citizens had against France should be paid by the United States. When the interest was finally paid the total cost was over $27,000,000, but even so the land had cost only about 4 cents an acre.


(SPANISH)
UNITED STATES
(SPANISH)

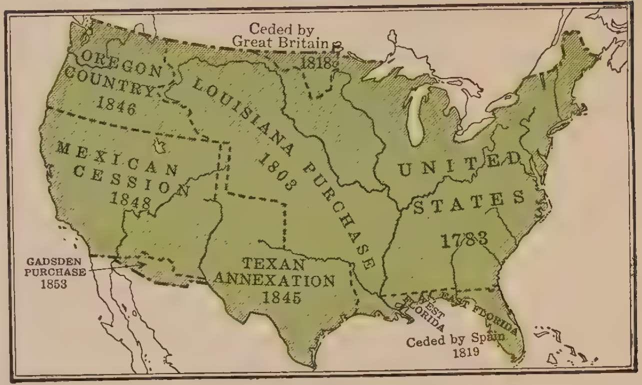
1783


(Claimed by United States, Great Britain, and Russia)
(SPANISH)
LOUISIANA PURCHASE 1803
UNITED STATES
(SPANISH)

1803


(Jointly occupied by United States and Great Britain)
Ceded by Great Britain 1818
UNITED STATES
(SPANISH)
WEST FLORIDA
EAST FLORIDA
Ceded by Spain 1819

1819


Ceded by Great Britain 1818
OREGON COUNTRY 1846
LOUISIANA PURCHASE 1803
UNITED STATES 1783
MEXICAN CESSION 1848
GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
TEXAN ANNEXATION 1845
WEST FLORIDA
EAST FLORIDA
Ceded by Spain 1819

1853

Senate no power to buy land, and though many business men objected to more debt, Jefferson and the Senate agreed to the sale.

Spain was very much disappointed at seeing the land going to the young America. Frenchmen also protested, but Napoleon could not be moved. When the time came to draw up the treaty, the representatives of the United States appeared before the French minister Talleyrand.

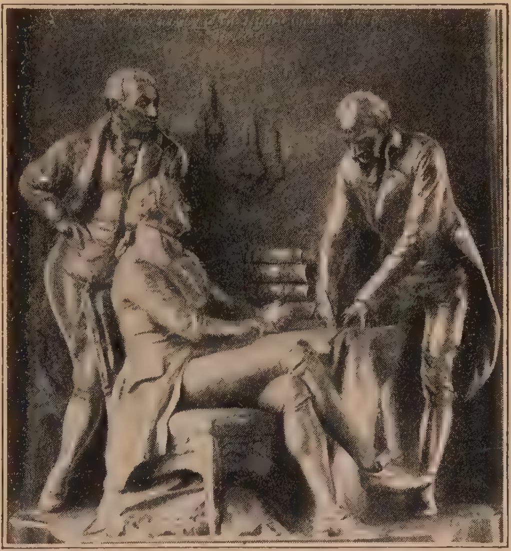


FIG. 125. Representatives of France and the United States signing the document which made "Louisiana" a part of our country

Livingston asked, "What are the boundaries of Louisiana?"

"I do not know," said the wily Talleyrand smoothly. "You must take it as we received it."

"But what did you mean to take?" insisted Livingston.

"I do not know," was the bland reply.

"Then you mean that we shall construe it our own way?"

"I can give you no direction," parried the Frenchman. "You have made a noble bargain for yourselves, and I suppose you will make the most of it."

And a noble bargain it was, a territory almost as large as all the United States of that time (see the table on page 348). The wealth of the states which grew out of the territory is now estimated to be about $7,000,000,000.

IN 1819 SPAIN GRANTED FLORIDA TO THE UNITED STATES

A vast western empire had been added to the territory of the United States, but the strip of southeastern seacoast, Florida, still belonged to poverty-stricken Spain.

Now, this land, full of swamps and everglades, was an excellent hiding place for escaped slaves, Indians, and smugglers. From the wild, low country enemies could and did swoop upon the Southern settlements in Alabama, Mississippi, and Georgia.

Shortly after the Louisiana Purchase some of the American settlers in West Florida (see map facing page 322), fearing that Napoleon would claim their land, drew up a form of government and made plans for protecting themselves. They laid the plans before the Spanish government, but Spain refused to consent to them; so the settlers declared themselves independent. Later they declared themselves a part of the United States.

In 1812 war was declared between the United States and England. The American government requested Spain to allow American troops to occupy Florida, so that they might protect themselves from England, but the request was refused. Then American forces marched south and captured a Spanish town.

In 1814, while the war between the United States and England was in full swing, British troops landed at Pensacola, Florida. General Andrew Jackson with a force of Americans captured Pensacola from the British but did not hold it. No sooner was Jackson's back turned than the British began to urge the escaped slaves and the Indians to attack the American settlements. In 1818, long after the war was over, the Seminole Indians were still attacking American settlements; Jackson, believing that the Spaniards were behind the trouble, again captured Pensacola.

The Spanish government was very angry, but it was powerless to prevent the coming of the Americans. A long dispute between the two governments finally ended in an agreement by which Spain granted Florida to the United States. The United States in return paid $5,000,000 to American citizens who had claims against the Spanish government.

SOON THE LOUISIANA PLAINS WEST OF THE MISSISSIPPI WERE ALIVE WITH SETTLERS

Thus by 1819 the United States owned the entire vast territory from the Atlantic coast to the Rocky Mountains, and no one knew how much farther.

Settlers began to pour into the new lands, and steadily the paradise of the hunter and trapper disappeared. Once more they would have to move on in order to find peace and quiet. From north, east, and south the frontier moved across the Mississippi. The Ohio and Kentucky settlements were being repeated. Rude homesteads grew into orderly farms and booming small towns. A man who lived on the Mississippi River during the early 1800's tells us:

> Between the second and third years of my residence in the country, the immigration from the western and southern states poured in a flood. . . . We have numbered a hundred persons passing through the village of St. Charles in one day. . . . I have looked over the plain quite to the ferry, where the immigrants crossed the upper Mississippi. I have seen in this extent nine wagons harnessed with from four to six horses. We may allow a hundred cattle, besides hogs, horses, and sheep, to each wagon; and from three or four to twenty slaves. . . . The cattle with their hundred bells; the Negroes with delight in their countenances, for their labors are suspended and their imaginations excited; the wagons, often carrying two or three tons, so loaded that the mistress and children are strolling carelessly along, in a gait which enables them to keep up with the slow traveling carriage — the whole group occupies three quarters of a mile. . . .
>
> Just about nightfall, they come to a spring or a branch, where there is water and wood. The pack of dogs sets up a cheerful barking. The cattle lie down. . . . The team is unharnessed. The huge wagons are covered, so that the roof completely excludes the rain. The cooking utensils are brought out. The blacks prepare a supper, which the toils of the day render delicious; and they talk over the adventures of the past day, and the prospects of the next. Meantime, they are going where there is nothing but buffaloes and deer to limit their range, even to the western sea.

In the early 1800's St. Louis, near Boone's last frontier home, was growing from a fur-trading village to a large town. Like New Orleans it had been founded by French settlers. The earlier houses had been built of rough stone and whitewashed like the substantial stone homes of French peasants. From the opposite shore of the Mississippi the new town looked picturesque as it rose from the river to the crest of a gentle slope. Several fine buildings decorated it, and on the outskirts outlined against the distant forest several old Spanish forts still stood guard. These were remnants of the days of Indian attacks. Now, in their half-ruined condition, they were romantic and beautiful, but they were soon to be dwarfed by the rapidly growing city.

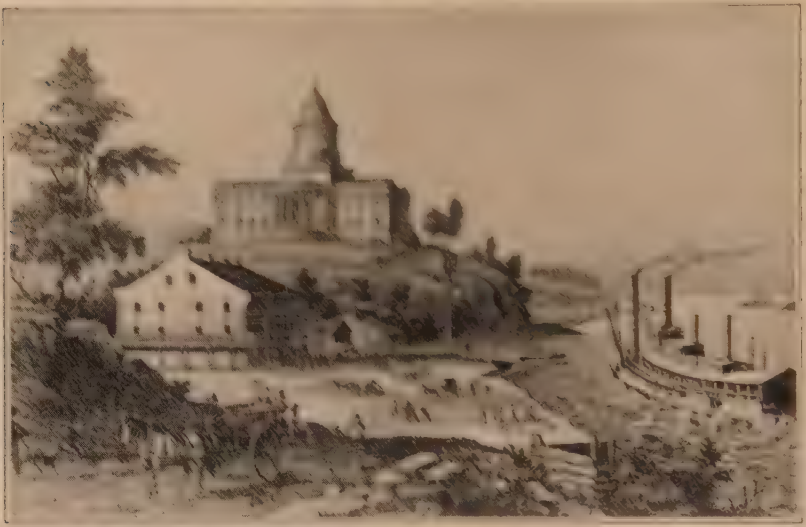


Fig. 126. Jefferson City, Missouri, in 1840. Steamboats traveling up the Mississippi turned into the Missouri River and made stops at Jefferson City to unload and load goods. (From an old print. Photograph by Keystone View Company)

The Mississippi became more and more a Center of Trade

The life of the Mississippi River was busy, boisterous, and rough. The wharves near New Madrid rang with the noise of hundreds of river boats tying up at the landings. In the spring, especially, fleets came down the river, bearing rich cargoes from long distances upstream on their way to New Orleans.

There were boats loaded with lumber from southwestern New York forests. There were flatboats carrying Yankee manufactured goods which had been reshipped from Ohio. From Kentucky and Tennessee came barrels of pork, flour, whisky, rolls of hemp and tobacco, bagging, bale rope, and bales of cotton. From Missouri and Illinois came cattle, horses, pigs, chickens, potatoes, wheat, hard cider, and loads of recently mined lead. There were raw liquors which were shipped from the northern river valleys. Boatloads of penned-up turkeys gobbled, pigs squealed a lively protest from their cramped quarters, and chickens and cocks seldom ceased their cackling and crowing.

From towns and farms hundreds of miles apart men met and made friends, drank together, traded, helped one another, and then floated on to Natchez or New Orleans. During their stay at the small Mississippi River towns there was the sound of shouts, laughter, and rough amusement. At midnight, however, everything suddenly quieted. By morning the entire fleet had disappeared as if by magic — only to be replaced by another by nightfall.

Flatboats and Other Crude Craft were driven from the River by the Steamboats

The Mississippi flatboat era was also drawing to its picturesque end as the westward-moving tide crossed the Mississippi River and moved on across the plains. After the *New Orleans* made its wonder-working trip from Pittsburgh to New Orleans (1811) many steamboats followed it on the rivers. (See *An Introduction to American Civilization*, p. 259). The boatman who floated to New Orleans no longer faced the unpleasant choice of poling his unwieldy barge upstream or selling it for lumber there and walking back to Kentucky or Ohio.

The demand for steamboats, which would puff up the river as easily as down, was immediate. Inland shipbuilding became a profitable industry, and although the builders worked night and day during the 1830's and 1840's to fill piled-up orders, they never caught up. It was said that 5000 river steamboats passed the town of Cairo, Illinois, in 1840.

Passenger boats followed a regular schedule from Pittsburgh to New Orleans, for a fare of $25. Some of the "floating palaces," as the paddle-wheeled steamers were called, had three decks. Cabins offered comfortable beds to travelers, and there was always a large dining room, which was cleared after dinner for dancing.

So popular did river travel become that many times the boats could not provide beds for everyone. In that case extra passengers were given a bed on the dining-room floor after the dance had come to an end. It was a "good job for the steward to get several hundred of the sleepers up in the morning so that the tables could be set and breakfast served."

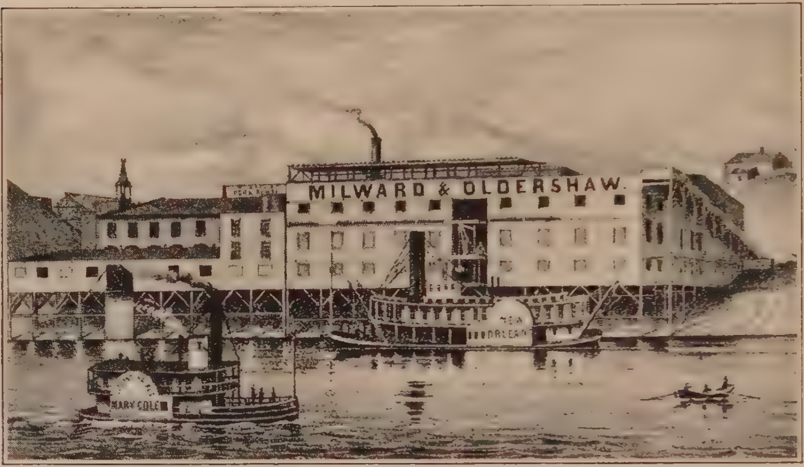


FIG. 127. Soon after the *New Orleans* made its first trip down the Ohio and into the Mississippi, these rivers began to be dotted with an ever growing number of steamboats. (From a lithograph)

EXPLORERS BLAZED A FAR-WESTERN TRAIL: THE LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION, 1804–1806

On a May morning in 1804 three flat-bottomed boats put off from the east bank of the Mississippi River near where the Missouri enters it. Two of the boats were pirogues. One was a large bateau with a forecastle and a cabin, a sail and 22 oars. A picturesque scene as the boats turned into the mouth of the Missouri River!

The three boats were starting on a great adventure. A band of frontiersmen[1] with two brave leaders, named Lewis and Clark, were on their way to the distant shores of the Pacific Ocean.

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[1] Authorities do not agree upon the number of men who started off on this expedition with Lewis and Clark. The numbers given vary from 16 to 43.

They were out to explore and to learn the extent of the newly acquired Louisiana territory. Never before had Americans made the entire trip overland. Only French Canadian *coureurs de bois* and British trappers had penetrated through the northern Canadian wilderness. Of the fertile lands, mountains, and deserts which lay west of the great American plains no white man knew.

Meriwether Lewis and William Clark had both seen service in the Ohio territory under "Mad" Anthony Wayne. Clark was the youngest brother of the hero of Kaskaskia, George Rogers Clark. Their companions, all of whom had been recruited from the Kentucky borderland and the Western frontier posts, were as hardy and fearless as they.

For four days the little fleet sailed "under a gentle breeze up the Missouri" past Daniel Boone's little village. Thenceforth there were no settlements. Beyond that they would have to trust to the guidance of occasional trappers and traders through the Louisiana country. Along the way they had to kill deer, black bear, wild turkey, and other wild fowl for food.

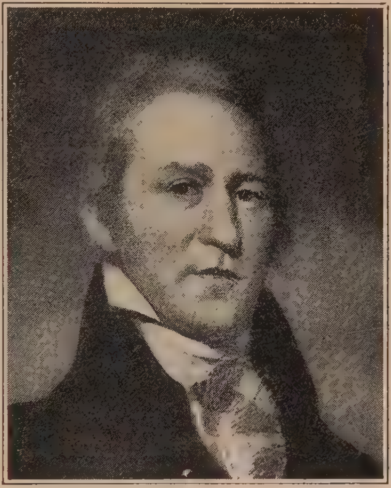

FIG. 128. William Clark

At length they passed through the thin fringe of forest which merged into the plain. They were coming to the long-grass country of Dakota, black with herds of buffaloes and elk which had been driven westward by the oncoming white settlers.

Winter came on as the explorers fared northward up the river. It was impossible then to venture into the mountains. A tribe of light-skinned Indians, the Mandans, welcomed the white men for the long winter's rest among them. The Mandans were civilized and friendly. They boasted that they had never shed white blood. The exploring party passed a happy winter in their tepees, chatting with the braves, hunting buffaloes with the young warriors, or dancing to the tune of a French trapper's fiddle.

The Frenchman, who was named Charbonneau, listened eagerly to the plans of Lewis and Clark. One day he brought his slender young Indian wife to talk with the Americans. She told them that her name was Sacajawea ("the Bird Woman") and that she had been born far to the west in the tepees of the Shoshone Indians of what is now Idaho. When she was a young girl she had been stolen by the Mandans and had grown up among them, but she remembered her home very well, and she and Charbonneau offered to guide the party safely through the bad lands and the Rocky Mountains.

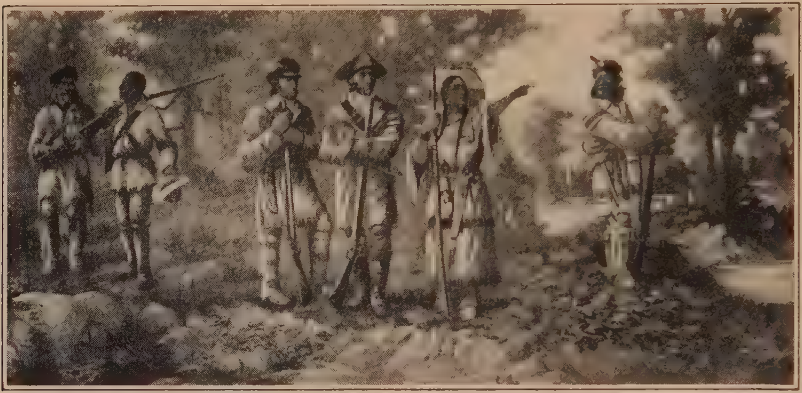

FIG. 129. Sacajawea pointing out the trail to Lewis and Clark. (From a painting by Paxson, in the Montana State Capitol)

So in the spring of 1805, with Sacajawea and Charbonneau guiding them, Lewis and Clark followed the Missouri River to the very high point in the Rocky Mountains where it begins as a swift mountain creek. When they reached the tribe of Sacajawea they obtained horses and supplies. Then, across the towering mountain peaks, the party toiled to the rivers which flow westward into the Pacific. There they made rafts and floated downstream until on November 15, 1805, they were rewarded by a view of "this great Pacific Ocean which we have been so long anxious to see, and the roaring or noise made by the waves, breaking on the rocky shores . . . may be heard distinct."

For months they studied and wrote about the land which Napoleon had recently sold to their country.

The river courses led them on a roundabout way which wound through a large portion of the Northwest — north through what are now the Dakotas, almost to the Canadian line, then south and west through the present states of Montana, Idaho, Washington, and Oregon.

In 1806 they turned their faces eastward, and the party divided, continuing to explore as they went. One half of the expedition went north, and the other south through Montana. They met again near the mouth of the Yellowstone River and on September 23, 1806, reached St. Louis again. For two years and four months they had followed the rivers, guided most of the way by the young Indian woman. They had suffered untold hardships, yet only one man was lost and only one had deserted.

These men were the trail-blazers of the pioneers who later wended their way over the Oregon Trail to the Oregon territory.

TRADERS WERE PLUNGING INTO THE SOUTHWEST ALSO

In the autumn of 1821 a pack train of mules and horses wound over an old Indian trail along the Arkansas River. A Missouri trader named Hugh Glenn rode lazily along on the lead horse, seeking the old Spanish city of Santa Fe, far west of Texas. Glenn was sure he was traveling in the right direction, although he did not know where the city lay. Presently he met a group of Spanish traders and with their help covered the long distance to the ancient Spanish city of the desert.

His reward was well worth the trip. Indians and Spaniards welcomed Glenn and declared that they were eager to trade with the *americanos.* A profitable and enjoyable stay passed quickly in Santa Fe.

With the coming of the spring rains, tender green grass sprouted over the desert; and Glenn with his horses — which were fattened from their long rest — turned homeward. He stopped at the Indian region of Taos, then traveled east over the Cimarron desert. It was a hot and desolate land where acrid, desert water was the only drink. Even that could be found only by digging holes in the sand.

When Glenn returned to Missouri, he was greeted with the news that the country through which he had passed no longer belonged to Spain but to Mexico. From 1809 to 1821 the Mexicans had fought a long revolutionary war and had followed the lead of the United States by setting up an independent government.

Inspired by Glenn's success, every year a trading expedition was formed to make the hot and body-breaking trip through the desert to Santa Fé. Traders would meet at Council Grove, Missouri, to journey together through the region of the wild Comanche Indians. The company was divided into small groups under a captain and four lieutenants. They would take turns acting as sentries during the nights.

At the end of each day's journey the wagons, or prairie schooners, were placed in the form of a hollow square. Inside the inclosure the animals grazed all night. The men wrapped themselves in blankets and crawled beneath the wagons to sleep. Outside the barricade, fires were built and the guards paced back and forth. The corral was built more as a protection for the horses than for the men, for the Comanches were always looking for a chance to make off with the horses and leave the white men helpless in the desert.

It was a hard and dangerous trip of several weeks between Missouri and Santa Fé, and both animals and men always arrived exhausted. However, the gay cafés and dance halls of the Spanish town soon revived their spirits. The citizens of Santa Fé gave them a warm welcome and entertained them royally.

So the Southwest trade increased. Valued at only $15,000 in 1822 it was estimated at $450,000 by 1843.

Still the Tide of Settlement followed the Traders

The tide of settlement rolled beyond the Mississippi and across the fertile plains of Kansas and Iowa. Then it encountered the tremendous barrier of the dry prairie and plateau land and the craggy slopes of the Rocky Mountains. Again "geography" was playing its part in human settlement.

For many years the human flood rolled up to the plateau at the foot of the mountain range and stopped there. An occasional streamlet of settlers forced its way across the dry plains and over the steep mountain wall, only to be defeated. It made men wonder if wheat and corn could be raised in the deep, quiet valleys. Could people live on these dry prairies and in the mountain valleys? They would see!

The American pioneers were not easily halted by any kind of boundaries. Time and again they had thrust aside the claims of other nations. Time and again they had outwitted forests, and plains, and even mountains. Already they had heard the stories of Lewis and Clark and of the forest-rangers who had crossed the barrier to the fertile Pacific coastal plain. Why not they, too?

To the south of the American frontier lay the Mexican province of Texas. To the west of the Santa Fé country was California, which Mexico had won from Spain. To the north were the vast forests and the rich Columbia River valley in Oregon. A great domain still lay before the Americans for conquest.

How Texas was settled by Americans and added to the United States

As we learned before, from the time of the explorer Coronado (1540–1542), Spaniards had tried to establish settlements north of the Rio Grande River. Priests had built missions and the Spanish government had set up small settlements about them. Slowly other white people came there to live. Then in 1727 the general territory now known as Texas was formed by the Spanish into a separate province and named Tejas or Texas, after a confederacy of Indians by that name.

Steadily during the next 100 years Spaniards from Mexico settled there, Frenchmen moved in from Louisiana, and English-American frontiersmen came down from the north. Thus by 1821 a mixed population of Indians, Spaniards, Americans, and Frenchmen were living in Texas.

Before 1821 three bands of American settlers had invaded the Mexican territory of Texas. In that year the Mexicans won their freedom from Spain, and the independent government of Mexico was established. That government claimed Texas as its province.

In 1821, also, Stephen Austin and a group of Missourians succeeded in making a permanent American settlement at San Felipe de Austin. Within the next 25 years people from Missouri flocked in to settle. In spite of the Mexican law which frowned upon slavery, slave-owners with caravans of black property went there to plant cotton.

Thus by 1830 there were nearly 20,000 people in Texas, not including Indians. All were under the rule of the Mexican government. These Texans had promised to be loyal to the republic of Mexico and to the Roman Catholic Church, but they were coming in such large numbers that the Mexican government feared their growing power and in 1830 passed a law forbidding more of these restless Americans to enter.

Ill feeling between the American and Spanish settlers in Texas began to grow. The Mexican governors restricted the privileges of Americans but favored the Mexicans with large grants of land. In 1835 an ambitious Mexican named Santa Anna seized control of the government. The Americans refused loyalty to him and set up their own provisional government. In the same year they organized a convention at San Felipe de Austin. Henry Smith was chosen governor, and General Sam Houston, known as "The Raven," was chosen major general of the Texan armies.

Hostilities soon broke out between the Spanish-Mexicans and the American-Texans. A Mexican army marched in to disarm the Texans but was driven out at San Antonio. A few months later, in 1836, Santa Anna besieged the city of San Antonio and captured the Alamo, after killing every man in the fort. General Sam Houston then took command of the Texan armies and defeated the Mexicans at the San Jacinto River. Santa Anna was captured, and the war ended with victory for the Americans.

Before this happened, however, a convention had been held and Texas was declared independent. A republican constitution was adopted, and in September, 1836, General Sam Houston was elected the first president of the Republic of Texas. In 1837 the United States, Great Britain, France, and Belgium recognized the independence of the republic.

For eight years the weak republic struggled along under many difficulties. The Texans desired to be annexed to the United

States, and in the United States it was generally the opinion that Texas should be annexed. But a prolonged dispute developed in Washington over the question of whether slavery should be permitted in Texas. Finally, in 1845 Texas was formally annexed to the United States of America. Later in the year this large territory was divided and part of it was admitted as the present state of Texas.

You will read in the next volume how the great Southwestern territory, later the states of Utah, New Mexico, Arizona, and California, was also taken away from Mexico in 1846, and was annexed to the United States after a brief war in which Mexico was decisively defeated.

After the war was ended planters moved from Alabama and Mississippi, across the Mississippi River into Texas and the other newly acquired lands. Already the rich bottom land of the eastern Gulf coast was wearing out from the great yearly cotton crops, but the damp coast lands of Texas offered virgin soil and favorable climate for the planting of cotton. The dry plains of northern Texas promised grassland for immense herds of cattle like those which the Mexicans tended south of the Rio Grande; so Americans took up thousands of acres of grazing land and bred sleek long-horned Mexican cattle.

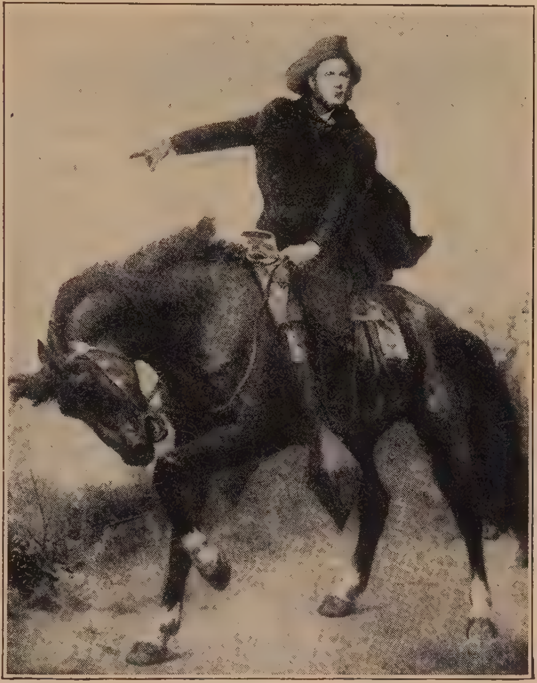

FIG. 130. General Sam Houston, soldier, president of the Republic of Texas, and later governor of the American state of Texas. (From a painting by S. Seymour Thomas in the possession of the city of Houston)

Westward Settlement also spread northward into Oregon

Even before the Revolutionary War English traders had discovered the riches of the vast tract of land that is now Oregon and Washington. They had traveled by canoes 2000 miles to the Rockies, then by pack horse and canoe another 700 miles to the Columbia River valley. There they found a warm, moist climate — a favorable place to grow things. Tall trees grew in immense stretches of forest. There were abundant fur-bearing animals to reward trappers. It was indeed a profitable place for traders.

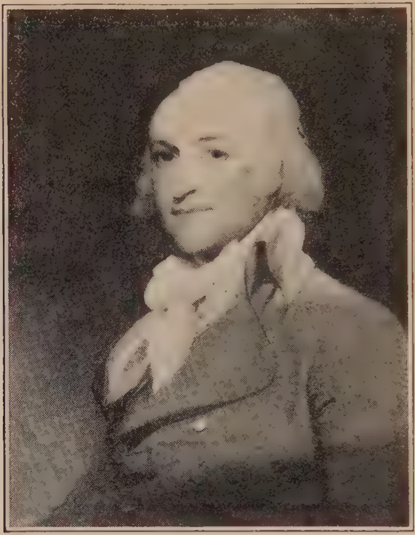
Fig. 131. John Jacob Astor. (From a painting by Gilbert Stuart. Courtesy of The Brook Club, New York)

After the Revolution ambitious Yankee traders with their little sailing vessels had ventured around South America and up the Pacific coast to this northern country that came to be known as Oregon, where they bought furs from the Indians and sold them in far-off China. Then in 1792 an American sea captain found the great Columbia River, of which Spanish explorers had written. He claimed it and all the land it drained for the United States.

Within a few years there came to Oregon other English and American explorers and traders and, in 1805–1806, Lewis and Clark and their expedition. In 1793 an English trader named Alexander Mackenzie had explored the country for the Northwest Trading Company. By 1808 this company had built several trading posts. In 1811 John Jacob Astor of the Pacific Fur Company organized a trading post at the mouth of the Columbia River. It was called Astoria. Along the Willamette, Spokane, and Fraser rivers grew up a string of trading posts, some of which were English and some American.

For several years a struggle went on between the British and American fur-traders. The British, under the Hudson's Bay Company, won, and in 1824 the Hudson's Bay Company sent John McLoughlin to Oregon to rule it for England. And rule it he did!

John McLoughlin was a Canadian who knew how to rule kindly but with an iron hand. The Indians called him White Eagle because of his long snow-white hair and his thin, sharp-nosed face. McLoughlin hated the selling of liquor and quickly put an end to the rum-carrying of American traders, for he knew that it would soon ruin the Indians.

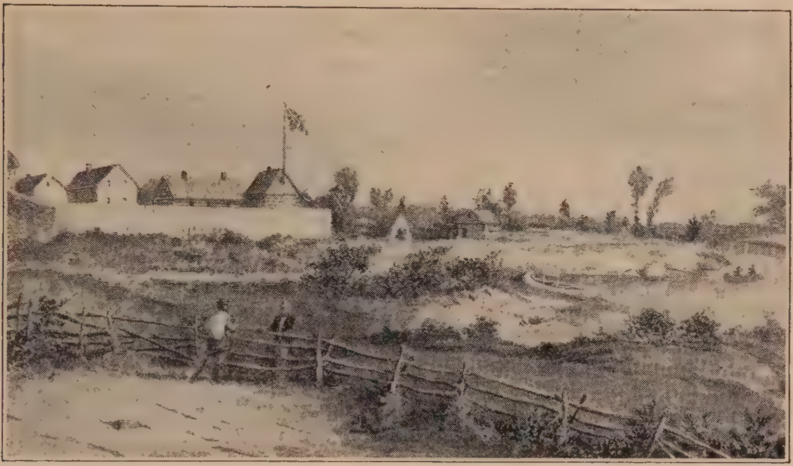

FIG. 132. A post of the Hudson's Bay Company. Notice the trapper with a bag of skins over his shoulder

Then he set about teaching the white settlers how to raise food from the virgin soil of the river valley. He sent men to the Spanish missionaries of Lower California to get seed for planting and small herds of cattle for breeding. The story is told that shortly after the first harvest was gathered, a traveler on a ship bound for China asked him, "Do you think this country will ever be settled?"

McLoughlin thumped his cane on the floor and exclaimed, "Sir, wherever wheat grows men will go and colonies will grow."

McLoughlin's camp was full of life and excitement at the end of the hunting season when the trappers returned to the fort. Early in the morning of the day of the home-coming, an Indian runner was ushered in to announce to the Chief Factor (McLoughlin) that the traders were on their way.

Presently the sound of deep-throated singing was heard over the water. McLoughlin ordered the servants to prepare the feast. Then he dressed himself carefully and was at the docks in time to see the line of boats sweep gracefully around the bend. The oars flashed like mirrors in the bright sunlight. One by one the boats appeared in a long straight line. They were often heavily loaded with several tons of furs each. Every *voyageur* was in his best hunting shirt and bright red sash and scarf. Their dark faces were gleaming with smiles.

It was the great event of the year at Fort Vancouver, and to celebrate it fittingly McLoughlin and his men gathered at a great banquet in the company headquarters. On this occasion the White Eagle did drink a glass of wine to start the celebration. For 24 hours following the men did whatever they liked, and no word of blame was said. Until nearly morning they told thrilling frontier tales and side-splitting stories.

This Oregon Territory fell into the Hands of American Settlers

For 22 years John McLoughlin was supreme ruler in Oregon. He could undersell every other trader, and his furs were the best.

But in 1832 something happened which changed Oregon. At that time four friendly Indian chiefs traveled overland from Oregon to St. Louis to ask the Americans there for a copy of their Bible. At once the zeal of the Missouri missionaries was aroused. They went immediately to the Willamette valley in Oregon, where they founded several missions. Jason and Daniel Lee were among the first. In 1834 they arrived and set about the task of converting the Indians to Christianity. Later, in 1838, Jason traveled inland, preaching and lecturing about the mission. Such great interest in Oregon was aroused that more settlers soon began to come. Most of these came by sea.

In 1842 the first large band traveled by land over the Oregon Trail. The following year 900 men, women, and children gathered at Independence, Missouri, to cross the plains in a body and make new homes in Oregon.

The torture of the journey across the plains and mountains

It was a remarkable picture made by the great caravans when they finally set out. The canvas tops of the prairie schooners looked like the bobbing sails of a fleet of vessels as the procession swept slowly through the rippling prairie grass. On both sides of the wagons plodded clusters of cattle, urged on by tall, slim, bearded Missourians.

Now and then the silence of the vast, still plain was broken by the lowing of cattle and the sharp report of the big blacksnake whip which the men cracked over the heads of the animals. The little fleet of prairie schooners crawled steadily forward. The whole story of the westward movement was told in a single picture — the slow, unceasing, determined march of the settlers, who craved a better living and new land.

If one were to meet the band of Missourians he would be greeted by the vanguard of tall, yellow-skinned men on horseback. "Hi, stranger," one of them would say, "are ye for Oregon or California?"

From the rear opening in the canvas covering peered the faces of children too shy to call a greeting. Perhaps on the front seat a careworn, old-looking woman would be seated bolt upright with her hands busy at her knitting even as she stared curiously at the travelers. Alongside the wagon usually marched the head of the family. He never ceased to urge on the plodding oxen as they shifted their weight slowly, from foot to foot, in a seemingly endless motion.

The pioneers found every kind of climate on the trip, from sweltering desert to chilly mountain land. The first miles of pleasant prairie with shallow streams "a mile wide and an inch deep" faded into blinding, sandy deserts and no water at all. Some of the settlers went through the desolation of the "bad lands," where coyotes were the only living things. Their throats were parched for lack of water, and their oxen staggered in the heat. The prairie schooner bumped and jolted over unbelievably rough and rocky roads. Frequently wide gullies, cut by streams long gone dry, caused the wagons to go miles out of their path.

Then came the foothills of the Rockies. How the mountains towered before the eyes of men accustomed to the plains of Missouri! The foothills soon rose to the higher peaks, which seemed to lead up and up to the very sky. Yet the frontiersmen would not turn back. Now and then swift mountain torrents cut across the trail and threatened to upset the unwieldy wagons as the oxen splashed through the water. But up they went over the narrow trails until their ears hummed and their breath came short.

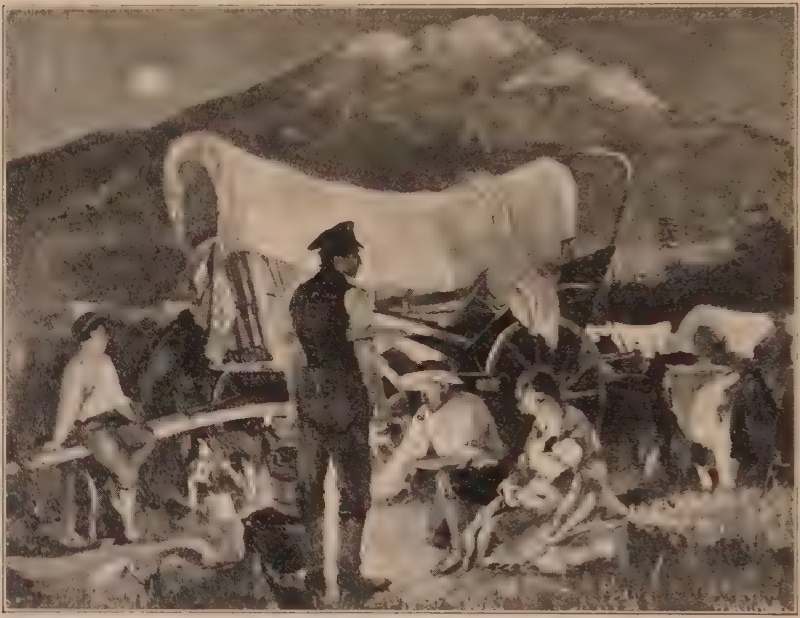

FIG. 133. Supper time on the Oregon trail. (From a painting by Stanley M. Arthurs)

Almost every week such wagon trains, after at least five months of wearying travel, finally managed to cross the mountains and enter the Columbia valley. So many of the restless pioneers from the American Middle West got through that by the 1840's they were stronger than the Hudson's Bay Company.

Rapidly Oregon was settled and in 1846 the Southern Section became Part of the United States

By 1843 the reign of kind old John McLoughlin was at an end. Yet McLoughlin never failed to welcome new arrivals. His long white hair blew in the wind as he raised his hat in greeting. The company's fort offered hospitable quarters to settlers until they had thrown together their crude cabins. If the settlers were in need of money McLoughlin could always help them. He did so gladly with only "Pay me back when you can" as his security. The truth must be told that many of the settlers repaid only by cursing him for being an "aristocrat."[1] The day of the settler had come to stay. Trading was no longer possible after the settlers had staked out land, cleared forests, and fenced in fields. The hunters and trappers knew that they must move on to the northern woods of Canada. McLoughlin had been right when he said, "Wherever wheat grows men will go and colonies will grow."

For 28 years Oregon had been held jointly by the British and American governments, but the American people were greedy for land and in 1846 the territory was divided. The United States received the immense southern portion, which included the present states of Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and parts of Wyoming and Montana.

Soon the early days of pioneering had passed in the Oregon country. Large tracts of forest were cleared, farms were laid out, frame houses took the place of log cabins, and little towns sprang up. In 1859 the state of Oregon was admitted to the Union. The last frontier was passing.

South of Oregon lay Drowsy California

At the same time that Spanish priests and monks were going into the territory north of the Rio Grande, they were also making settlements along the Pacific coast. Soon white missions, built by the Indians under the direction of the priests, lay scattered under the blue, southern sky of California.

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[1] McLoughlin finally became a citizen of the United States.

From the priests the poor California Indians learned to live a settled life in villages. They learned to spin wool, to tan hides, to prepare tallow, cultivate hemp and wheat, grow oranges, make soap, iron, and leather goods, make wood into mission furniture, and manufacture olive oil and wine. Thus their lot was improved.

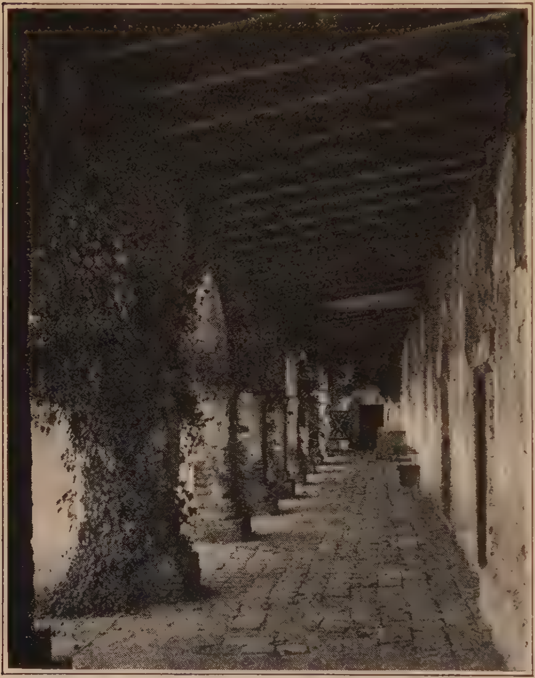

FIG. 134. The cloister, or walk, of an old Spanish mission in California

Later other Spanish people followed the priests. They took up great tracts of land and lived a happy care-free life on their great *haciendas* ("estates"). There, where the Indian had barely managed to live, olive trees flourished, grain grew abundantly, and cattle and sheep wandered over the plentiful pastures of the green valleys.

It was so easy for them to find a living that there was little reason for much effort. The *haciendas* were worked on a kind of feudal system. The Indians, who had learned to cultivate the fields, now rented the lands and the Spanish landlords amused themselves by riding, gambling, dancing, and visiting. They spent days in the saddle, and the men gained the reputation of being among the finest horsemen in the world.

The Spanish houses of the landlords were built around a *patio*, or courtyard. The rooms opened into this lovely inner flower garden shaded by enormous fig and oleander trees and cooled by a bubbling fountain. The house was cared for by Indian servants ready to do the bidding of the master and mistress.

The poorer ranch houses were plain, one-story, adobe shacks. Like the homes of the wealthy, however, they were white and crowned with red-tile roofs like those which the owners had left in Spain.

The Tide of American Settlement flowed into California

The hospitality of the Spaniards was famous. Countless American and British traders were going about through California, yet nowhere did the strangers fail to receive a warm welcome. The greeting of the landlord to his guest was always, "My house is your house." If the guest were a poor man, he might find among his baggage or in his room on the day of his departure a pile of coins — a gift from his tactful host.

This was generally a time of peace and harmony among Americans, Indians, and Spaniards. California was called the "land of the lotus-eaters."

Many of the foreigners who went to California in the early days loved the land and the people so much that they became naturalized Spanish citizens and married into the California families.

Later, when Mexico had won California from Spain, many of the old families remained loyal to Spain. Since it was no longer a part of the mother country, they were indifferent to the fate of California. Even when Americans began to arrive in numbers and to talk of adding California to the United States, the Spanish families showed little opposition.

Then came the war between the United States and Mexico. The American settlers in California revolted against Mexico. In 1848 Mexico ceded California to the United States and the present boundaries of our country were fixed.

The lotus-eating days were over. The lot of the Spaniards in California steadily became more unfortunate. They lost most of their property and were unhappy under the American rule.

Gold in California!

Suddenly, in the same year that California became a part of the United States, a discovery of the utmost importance was made.

"Gold! Gold! Gold from the American river!" Thus shouted the foreman of Sutter's Fort one day as he held high a bottle of the precious sunny metal. In 1849 as many as 80,000 people, mostly Americans, rushed to California in search of the gold found near Sutter's Fort. From all over California men rushed into the Sacramento valley. Farmers threw down their plows and sailors deserted their ships to hasten there. Sutter's Fort grew amazingly as people from everywhere joined the gold hunt.

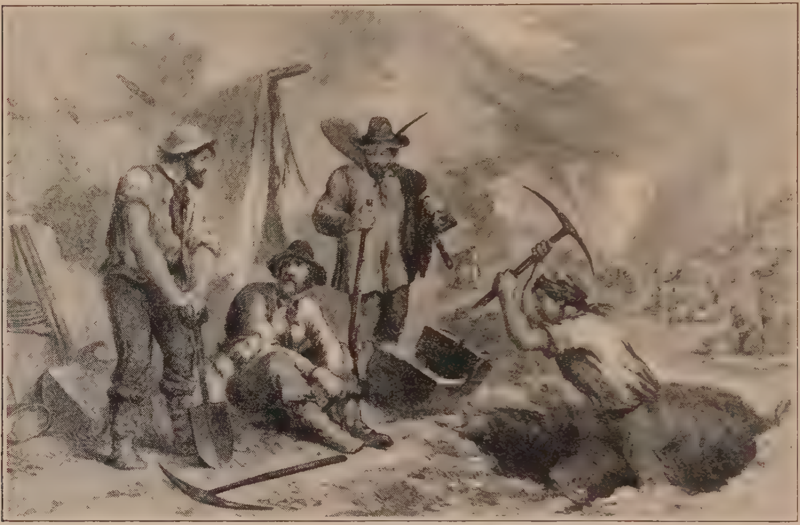

FIG. 135. In 1849 Sacramento valley swarmed with people. All along the river banks in the valley men with picks and shovels were digging the soil and searching hopefully for gold. (From a drawing in Ballou's *Pictorial Drawing-Room Companion*, 1856. Photograph by Keystone View Company)

One can imagine the wild, lawless life that was led there in the gold valley. There were few women. Men drank and gambled to amuse themselves. Yet few of them were dishonest in those first days of the "rush." Fortunate miners who had found gold thought nothing of keeping their findings in a tin can where anyone might see them. Few people were robbed since it was easier to dig gold than to run the risk of stealing it.

No wonder men believed that the supply of gold was endless. It was possible to dig it with a pocket knife at the roots of trees. It could be picked out of veins in the rock with a hunting knife.

Many people believed that the earth of all California was mingled with gold. Sometimes men could dig or wash from the creeks as much as $30,000 worth of gold in a week.

A famous story is told of how the miners valued the gold. One day a miner was paying for a purchase in a supply store. He dropped a nugget of gold worth about two or three dollars on the floor. Someone picked it up and handed it back to the miner.

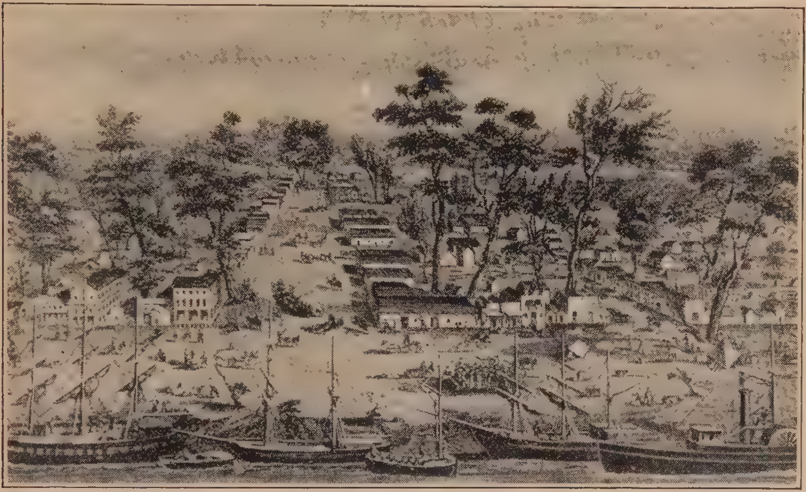

FIG. 136. Sacramento in 1849 was a busy place. By water and by land more people joined the settlement every day. (From an old print. Photograph by Keystone View Company)

"Well, stranger," exclaimed the miner in amazement, "you're a curiosity. I guess you haven't been in the diggings long. You'd better keep that lump for a sample."

By 1849 the rush from the East to California was in full swing. There were three ways of reaching California from the Atlantic coast. One was by prairie schooner overland. The second was by ship to the Isthmus of Panama, then by land across the Isthmus and by vessel up the coast to San Francisco. The third was by ship from an Eastern port southward around Cape Horn and northward to California. This last route was not popular, for the trip covered about 16,000 miles and the Forty-niners were in a great hurry.

To the thousands of people who took the westward overland trail to California it proved a terrible journey. Sickness and death followed in the train of the prairie fleets as they struggled across plains and deserts in a desperate attempt to reach the Sierra Nevada Mountains before the passes into California were closed by the winter snows. Along the route there were scenes of disaster and sorrow. Women, widowed by cholera, dragged their miserable children over the blazing sands. Dead animals lay strewn along the road. There was not enough food or water. Always the fortune-hunters were burning with heat and thirst, choked with sand and dust.

The trip by way of Panama appealed to many of the Forty-niners. First, there was a long, pleasant trip southward, then only about 50 miles of land to cross, and another pleasant sail up the Western coast. Every old ship that would float was called into service. The vessels were packed with every kind of man — lawyers, doctors, laborers, farmers, mechanics, gamblers, adventurers, miners. It was a merry adventure to the men who believed that they were on the road to fortune.

In 1849 the town of San Francisco was booming because of the Gold Rush

As the ships entered the Golden Gate at San Francisco, the newcomers saw a town of wooden shacks, tents, frame buildings, an occasional Spanish adobe house, and one or two American-looking brick buildings. What a lively, boisterous town they were entering! Bands were playing in the saloons which lined the water front.

The newcomers were shocked by their first experiences in the town. The prices of everything were extremely high. Rooms in the few respectable hotels — not too clean — cost from $25 to $100 a week. In the cheap lodging houses men slept on rolled-up blankets on the floor or in bunks or cots for $15 a week — and shared their filthy, vermin-infested rooms with ten or twenty other men. Tents or flimsy frame shanties rented for $300 a month. Land cost $1000 a front foot in the heart of the town. Interest on loans was at the rate of from 15 to 25 per cent a month.

Eating was no less expensive than sleeping. What should you think if you were to enter a "high class" restaurant in San Francisco in 1849 and see a menu with prices like these?

Soup, $1.00; Fish, $1.50; Roast, $1.50; Omelet, $2.00.

San Francisco was a "boom" town. It was growing up overnight, and it was soon to become the greatest port on the Pacific coast.

AT LAST THE ENTIRE CONTINENT HAD BEEN SPANNED

With the settlement of California and Oregon the westward movement of the American people was completed. The Pacific had been reached and the last barrier cleared.

In less than three quarters of a century the Americans had conquered the red man's continent. In 1775 there had been only a few thousand lone pioneers settled west of the Appalachian Mountains. In 1850 tens of thousands had made their homes in distant Oregon and California, nearly 3000 miles from their relatives and neighbors on the Atlantic seaboard. The entire continent had been spanned. The greatest migration of modern history had run its course. All this in the short space of 75 years!

And with what sacrifice and suffering! With what bodily fatigue and mental anguish! With what loss of dear ones, breaking up of families, and cutting off of rich, enduring friendships! The luxuries, even the comforts, of the established communities of the East were given up by this restless horde of land-hungry pioneers. And yet it was the courage and determination of these brave frontier people, who were the vanguard of the westward movement, that made possible our American civilization of today.

In 1850, therefore, the groundwork of our country had been laid. All the land between Canada and the Rio Grande, between the Atlantic and the Pacific, had been brought under one central government, that of the United States of America. Some of it had been taken from the Mexicans and Indians. The rest of it was obtained by purchase or by the peaceful conquest of colonization.

Although the vanguard of the westward movement had reached the Pacific, the vast prairies east of the Rockies were by no means settled in 1850. There was still one task of colonization before the Americans. This movement developed in the years of the 1860's and the 1870's. Behind the vanguard in its determined

GROWTH OF THE UNITED STATES IN SQUARE MILES IN 70 YEARS

	Square Miles
United States in 1783	892,135
Louisiana Purchase (1803)	827,987
Florida (1819)	58,666
By treaty with Spain (1819)	13,435
Texas (1845)	389,166
Oregon (1846)	286,541
Mexican Cession (1848)	529,189
Gadsden Purchase (1853)	29,670
Total	3,026,789

assault upon the Western mountains rolled up other and larger waves of homesteaders, who settled the lands between the Mississippi and the Rockies. To the story of the taking of the last free land we turn in the next chapter.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

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CHAPTER XIV

THE LAST FRONTIER: CATTLE PLAINS, MINING TOWNS AND HOMESTEADS, 1860–1890

The Geography of the West: Prairies and Mountains which Early Settlers had considered Worthless

Let us turn back the hands of the history clock. It is between 1860 and 1865. We are making a balloon trip over a great Western territory. Fifteen hundred miles we shall sail, over the land between Minnesota and Idaho on the north and Arizona and New Mexico on the south.

We are starting from the town of St. Paul, a few miles below the Falls of St. Anthony (in the Mississippi River in Minnesota).

Now we are sailing northwest in a gentle breeze. Far beneath us we see a string of tiny settlements along the Red River and on the shores of many beautiful lakes. Are those squares of green carpet far down fields of wheat? No, for there are no fences, no clusters of farm buildings. It must be prairie grass. Occasional homesteaders' sod huts and a few acres of grain foretell the future of the region. On the whole, how few habitations there are! This is indeed the last frontier!

Over the Black Hills of Dakota and into the dry, level, sparsely covered land of Montana we sail. Indian villages with their pointed tepees of skin dot the land. As we drift westward the land begins to rise, and for miles the mountains continue up and up. How beautifully colored the rocky gorges are, and how noble the tall pines that have grown among the orange, red, blue-green, and purple rocks.

Ever higher and more heavily forested the mountains rise. Now we are over what will be Idaho. It looks like the pictures we have seen of the Alps in Switzerland — steep wooded slopes and deep, green valleys with swift creeks winding through the canyons.

We turn south toward Nevada. The trees become fewer, but the rocky cliffs are more brightly colored. The valleys are bare and dry, and nothing is growing in them but gray green sagebrush and low-lying shrubs. Everything is white alkali clay. Nevada is more barren than Montana. Still almost no signs of the white man's coming.

Now we are above Utah and the valley of the Great Salt Lake. What a busy place and how green it is, like a great emerald set down by chance! Surely that must be the Mormon settlement. People in Illinois and Missouri are still talking of the extraordinary religion which sprang up among them. Thrilling stories are told of the persecutions of the Mormons and their migration — first from Kirtland, Ohio, to Missouri, from Missouri to Illinois, and later from Illinois to Utah.

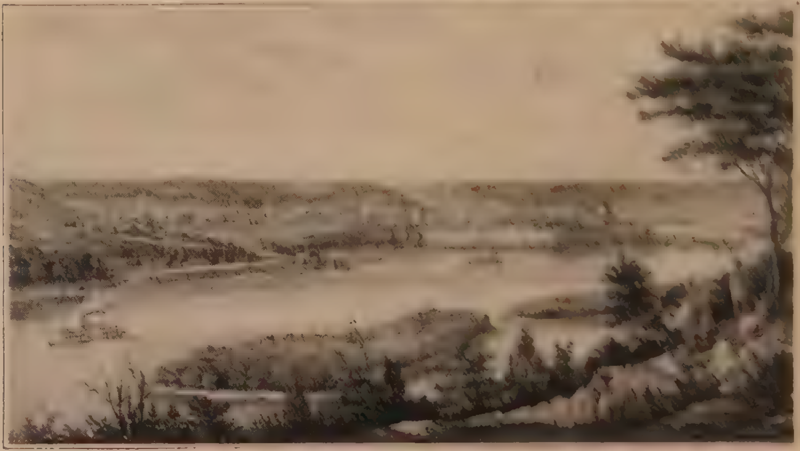
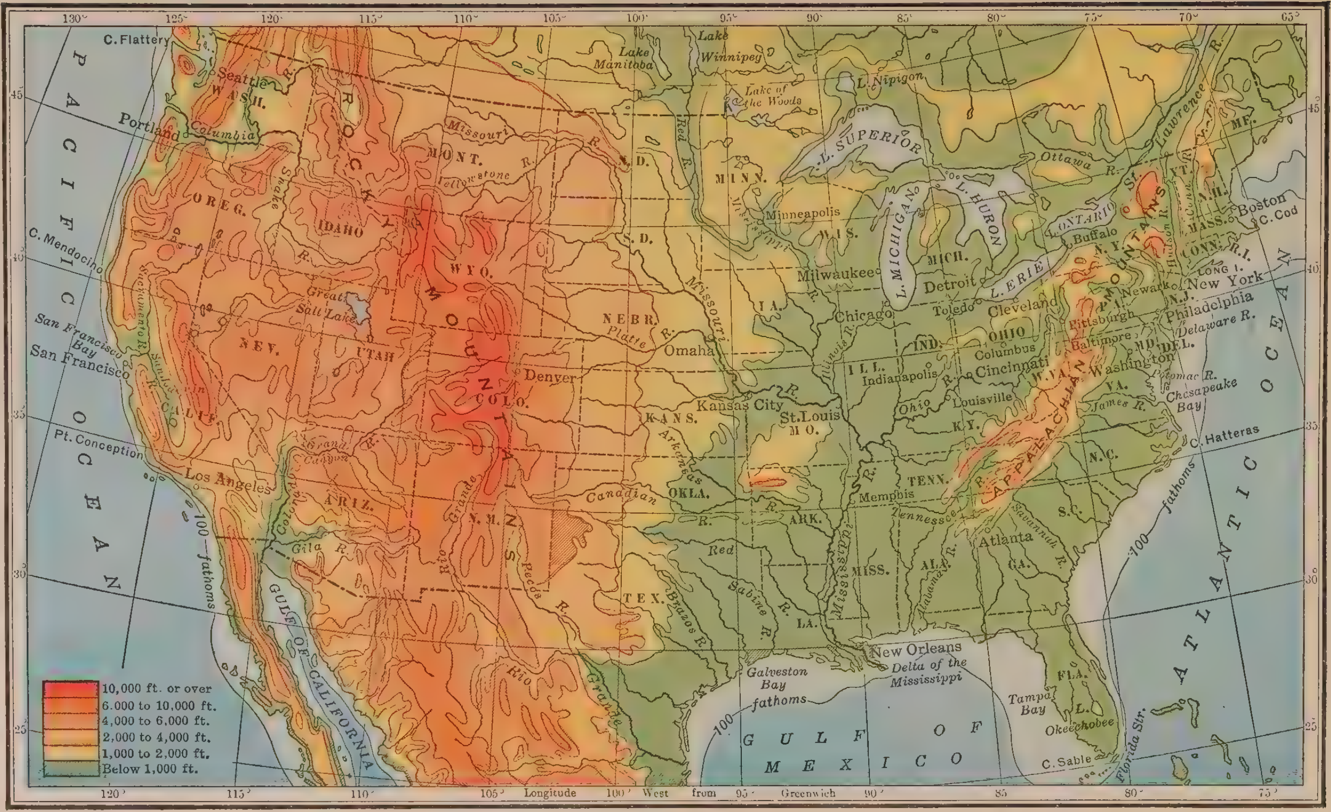


FIG. 137. In 1860 there was a large enough settlement near St. Paul to attract the river steamboats to the headwaters of the Mississippi River. (From a lithograph. Courtesy of the Minnesota Historical Society)

The Mormon settlement is the largest over which we have yet passed. The census of 1850 showed that there were then 11,000 people on the land which was later to be the state of Utah. Brigham Young, the Mormon leader, has named the territory Deseret, and according to him all the central plateau and mountain country are Mormon possessions.

How flourishing the colony looks and what an interesting sight



PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
GULF OF MEXICO
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
ROCKY MOUNTAINS
APPALACHIAN MOUNTAINS
ADIRONDACK MTS.
C. Flattery
Seattle
WASH.
Portland
Columbia
OREG.
C. Mendocino
Sacramento R.
San Francisco Bay
San Francisco
San Joaquin R.
CALIF.
Pt. Conception
Los Angeles
100 fathoms
NEV.
Great Salt Lake
UTAH
IDAHO
Snake R.
MONT.
Missouri R.
Yellowstone R.
WYO.
Denver
COLO.
ARIZ.
Grand Canyon
Colorado R.
Gila R.
N. M.
Rio Grande
Pecos R.
N. D.
S. D.
NEBR.
Platte R.
Omaha
KANS.
Kansas City
Arkansas R.
OKLA.
Canadian R.
Red R.
TEX.
Brazos R.
Sabine R.
Galveston Bay
Lake Manitoba
Lake Winnipeg
Lake of the Woods
Red R.
MINN.
Minneapolis
Mississippi R.
L. Nipigon
L. Superior
WIS.
Milwaukee
L. Michigan
MICH.
L. Huron
Detroit
I A.
Chicago
Illinois R.
ILL.
Indianapolis
IND.
St. Louis
MO.
ARK.
LA.
Memphis
MISS.
New Orleans
Delta of the Mississippi
Toledo
Cleveland
L. Erie
OHIO
Columbus
Cincinnati
Ohio R.
Louisville
KY.
TENN.
Tennessee R.
ALA.
Alabama R.
Atlanta
GA.
Savannah R.
S. C.
N. C.
C. Hatteras
Tampa Bay
L. Okeechobee
FLA.
C. Sable
Florida Str.
Ottawa R.
St. Lawrence R.
L. Ontario
Buffalo
N. Y.
PA.
Pittsburgh
W. VA.
VA.
James R.
Potomac R.
Washington
Baltimore
MD.
DEL.
Chesapeake Bay
Delaware R.
Philadelphia
N. J.
Newark
New York
Long I.
Hudson R.
CONN.
R. I.
MASS.
Boston
C. Cod
Connecticut R.
VT.
N. H.
ME.
130°
125°
120°
115°
110°
105°
100°
95°
90°
85°
80°
75°
70°
65°
45
40
35
30
25
Longitude West from Greenwich
10,000 ft. or over
6,000 to 10,000 ft.
4,000 to 6,000 ft.
2,000 to 4,000 ft.
1,000 to 2,000 ft.
Below 1,000 ft.

This map shows the principal rivers, lakes, and mountains of the United States

Salt Lake City is with its cultivated fields and silvery canal! We can see wagon roads winding into and out of the city. The Mormons may be "queer" people, as their neighbors in Missouri say, but they certainly have transformed the sun-baked desert into a garden!

We sail south over the desert. Far, far below there is a great cut in the earth at the bottom of which is a gleam of water. This is later to be called the Grand Canyon of the Colorado River. How blindingly bright the sunshine is as it lights up the rocks. Surely rocks cannot show such brilliant splashes of red, orange, yellow, and white. Everything looks unreal — like a great stage setting.

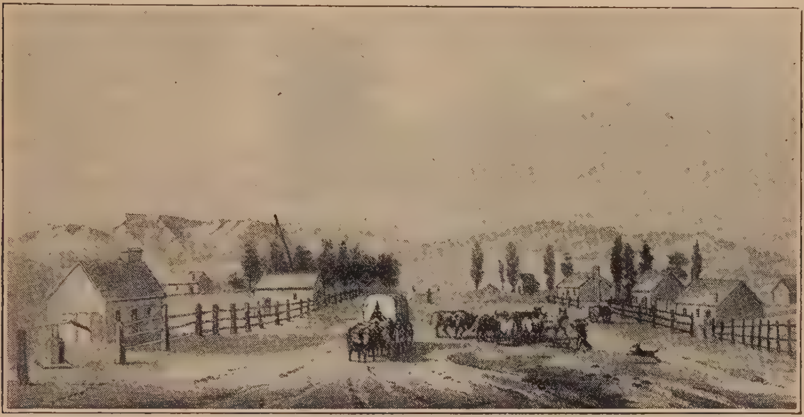


FIG. 138. Salt Lake City about 1860. (From a lithograph in Stansbury's *Exploration and Survey of the Great Salt Lake of Utah*, 1852)

Now we are sailing northeast over the rocky country which will soon be known as Colorado. Already there are signs of the white man's labor. Tiny creatures like ants are boring into the huge mountains with pickaxes and shovels, searching for precious minerals,— gold and silver,— for news came in 1858 of a rich strike near what is now Denver. Men are trying to discover the secrets of the mountains and to capture their hidden stores.

We are out over the Colorado Plateau, which is a mile above sea level. At first glance, as far as our eyes can see, there seem to be only bunch grass and sagebrush on the rolling prairie. But — what are those crawling forms far below? Cattle! There must be thousands of them! For hours we sail lazily far above the earth watching huge herds browsing over the flat country. There seem to be no signs of men about. The animals look as wild and free as a herd of buffaloes. But look! There is a long, low group of buildings and a corral. It must be a ranch. No doubt the owners of the cattle live there.

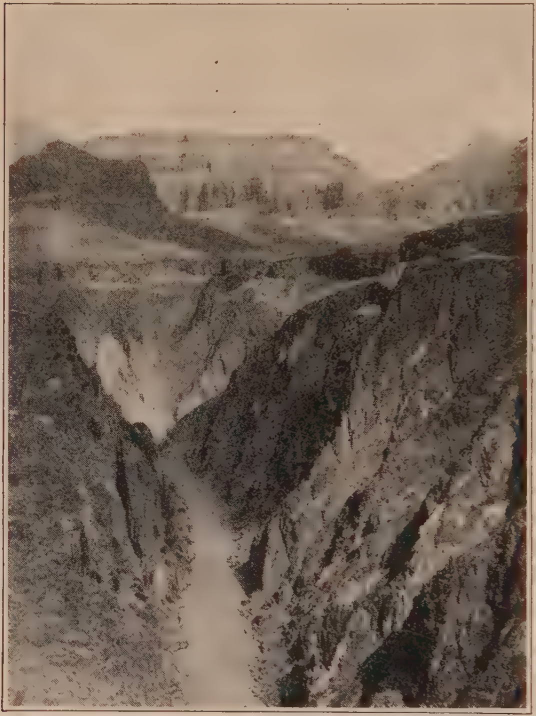


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FIG. 139. The Grand Canyon of the Colorado, which extends for 217 miles and is thousands of feet deep

What about factories, mills, and shops in these mountains and over the plains? There is not one. Not a smokestack have we seen, nor even a single mile of telegraph or telephone wire. Yet from time to time tiny towns have loomed below us, growing up at sites which favor trade.

Again we sail, now above New Mexico. Everywhere the land is brown and parched and mountainous, but the air is marvelously clear. The rocks are beautiful and brightly colored. Occasionally a swift mountain torrent rushes down a slope, for it is spring, but by autumn there will be only a little stream left.

We ask how long it will be before white men will make their homes in this region. Great stone dams might be built there to store the water as it comes to the head of the valley. All summer the supply could be used to irrigate the dry but rich soil which covers the plateau. Men of Asia and Egypt have known for thousands of years how to irrigate the land with running water and make the desert blossom. Surely land-hungry Americans will soon remember to use the trick that great crops may be brought out of the now barren soil!

As we continue northeastward we again enter the country purchased from France. We are constantly amazed at the grandeur of the land which Napoleon of France sold to President Jefferson for about $15,000,000 in 1803. Scarcely more than a half-century has passed since that time, yet already the Louisiana territory has been explored and 500,000 people are living upon it. The plains and the mountains dwarf men and make them seem few and weak to our view.

Here we are above eastern Nebraska. To the eastward we see a little black group of men working in a cut through a hill of yellow soil. What are they doing with their picks, shovels, and sledge hammers? What are those two bright blue lines behind them running off into the horizon? Rails! It is a railroad that is being constructed westward. The coming of the railroad will surely mean the end of the frontier. The steel wedge of industrial civilization is being driven through with every mile of railway.

In the 1860's, however, the great Western empire is still a "surging, drinking, fighting frontier." The few men there lead exciting and adventurous lives. Kit Carson, Buffalo Bill, and Wild Bill of the Plains are the heroes of this West which we are surveying. Other men, reckless and lawless, rejoice in the open life of the frontier, roaming Western trails as Robin Hood and his followers prowled Sherwood Forest in England in the Middle Ages. There are stagecoach robberies, Indian massacres, buffalo hunts, shootings, knifings, cattle-rustling, horse-stealing, mobbing, and lynching. The American people of the farthest frontier are men of a daring, reckless character.

Already, however, the lawlessness is passing with the coming of women and the building of permanent homes. The love of adventure, of doing things on a grand scale, of winning and losing fortunes overnight, is becoming a new tradition of this great West. It is becoming a part of the thinking of our Western people. A new kind of American civilization is being produced.

This, then, was the last frontier

By thousands, travelers from the East had crossed the arid prairies of Nebraska and Colorado, the mountains and the deserts of Arizona, Nevada, Montana, and Idaho to reach the Pacific coast. In fact, as they traveled they had asked one another whether people could ever hope to live in such forbidding regions. They had urged their patient oxen on and tarried little in the desolate land.

The history clock again turns. A few years have passed . . . 1865 . . . 1870. . . . Settlement has been made safe from Indians and wild animals. Overland stages whirr through this same prairie country, covering more quickly and comfortably the miles between Missouri and the Pacific coast. But the passengers still look at the lonely, forlorn landscape and are eager to be safe at the end of their trip. It still seems to most people no place for settlement.

On those prairies the earth was dry and there was little vegetation — nothing but grass and sagebrush. Those who stayed there for some time knew that little rain fell the year round. That was because of the winds and the mountains. The winds generally came from the west ("westerlies") across the Pacific Ocean, and as they struck the western slopes of the Sierra Nevada, the Cascade Mountains, and the Rocky Mountains their moisture fell there. Then as the clouds rose and passed over the mountains there was little moisture left. Hence, as the winds carried them eastward over Colorado and Nebraska, or over Montana or Arizona, they deposited so little moisture that vegetation was not rich in that region.

Thus it was that during the 1840's and 1850's settlers searching for rich farm land in Oregon or California passed over the Great Plains with little thought of pausing there and taking up the land. Thus "geography" helped again to determine settlement as it had throughout the history of each section of America.

Yet there was abundant life in this semiarid territory neglected by the white men. Immense herds of buffaloes had made their retreat to the Great Plains. Powerful and warlike Indian tribes lived there with the buffaloes. Some of these tribes had made their home in the plains and the mountains for many generations; others had moved there recently, pressed westward by the white men's advance. The Indian and the buffalo had

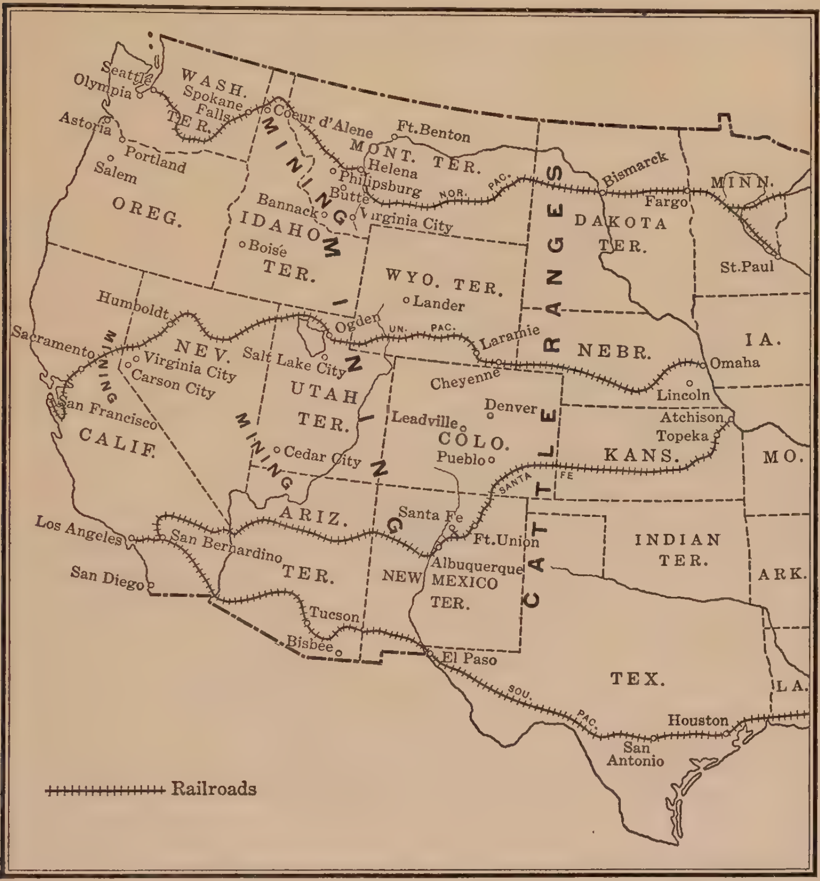
WASH. TER.
Seattle
Olympia
Spokane Falls
Astoria
Portland
Salem
OREG.
Coeur d'Alene
Ft.Benton
MONT. TER.
Helena
Philipsburg
Butte
NOR. PAC.
Bannack
Virginia City
IDAHO TER.
Boisé
MINING
WYO. TER.
Lander
CATTLE RANGES
Bismarck
Fargo
DAKOTA TER.
MINN.
St.Paul
IA.
Omaha
NEBR.
Lincoln
Atchison
Topeka
KANS.
MO.
Humboldt
Sacramento
NEV.
Virginia City
Carson City
MINING
Salt Lake City
Ogden
UN. PAC.
Laramie
Cheyenne
UTAH TER.
MINING
Denver
Leadville
COLO.
Pueblo
San Francisco
CALIF.
Cedar City
MINING
SANTA FE
ARIZ. TER.
Santa Fe
Ft.Union
Albuquerque
NEW MEXICO TER.
INDIAN TER.
ARK.
Los Angeles
San Bernardino
San Diego
Tucson
Bisbee
El Paso
SOU. PAC.
TEX.
Houston
San Antonio
LA.
Railroads

Fig. 140. The western half of the United States in the early 1880's. Note the important industries and towns which were then flourishing

arrived at their last stand on the Great Plains. The Indians were fighting bitterly and desperately to hold it. Yet they could not. No sooner did white men discover a use for the lands than the last freedom of the Indian was gone forever.

In the 1870's and 1880's the Americans did discover a profitable use for it!

How the Great Plains became a Rich Cattle Country

Far to the south in Mexico and in Texas roamed great herds of cattle. So plentiful were they that often no man claimed ownership of them. Even when ownership was claimed, it did not mean wealth to the owner because cattle were so plentiful that they were cheap. They could not be sold, since they were so far from the thickly settled parts of the country.

Once in a while cattle would be driven north beyond Texas, even to Missouri or to Illinois, for sale, but most of the herds remained in the South. The North and East were in need of meat. The Southwest had cattle to sell. But there was no easy way to trade. Soon there came a great change.

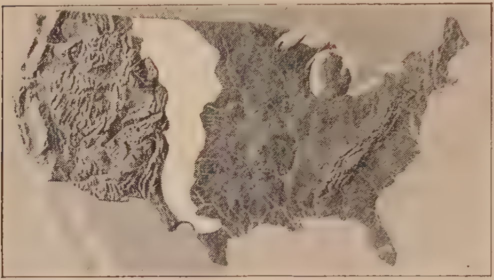

Fig. 141. The Great Plains of the United States are shown in white on the map. In the 1870's they were considered especially valuable for the grazing of cattle

By 1870 iron rails connected the Far West with the East. Trains passed back and forth, speeding in a few days over distances which before had taken weeks or months to cover.

The railroads saw a source of profit to themselves. If the cattle-owners of the Southern border could be persuaded to drive their cattle north to the railway and ship them to the East, the railroad-owners could fill many cars with this product of the Southern plains.

As time went on cattle-owners saw that the Great Plains would serve them quite as well for grazing land as for a pathway to the railroads. Accordingly, herds were driven north to grow fat and sleek before they were shipped to market.

So it came about that ranches sprang up on the plains, and year after year long processions of cattle moved northward from Texas and the Oklahoma country toward the railroad. The trail which they followed, beaten out during many years by the feet of these millions of cattle, came to be known as the Long Trail.

The Long Trail

For more than 2000 miles along the eastern edge of the Rocky Mountains the Long Trail stretched like a great rope connecting the Southern cattle country with the North. It wound and coiled in a hundred small strands of pathway, making a fairly well-marked line from Texas to Montana and the Canadian boundary. Westward a few loose strands strung out into Utah and Nevada. Eastward the trail wound in loops through parts of Missouri, Iowa, and even Illinois.

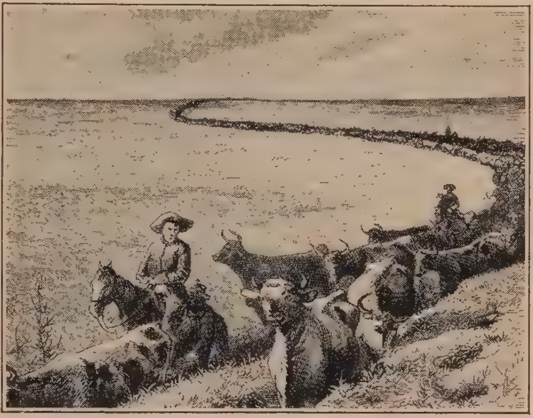
FIG. 142. The Long Trail wound through the lowlands from Texas to the Canadian border. (From *Harper's Weekly*, May 2, 1874)

Today there are still dim outlines of this cattle trail in Mexico and it shows very plainly across Texas and Oklahoma. Even the plows of thousands of farmers of Kansas and Nebraska have not quite wiped out the old cow trail as it winds northward. In Wyoming and Montana the mountains are still girdled with narrow trails running like ribbons along the sides of the slopes. In the "bad lands" of the North, too, the flat prairies guard the shadow of the long trail.

As city populations in the Eastern states continued to grow, there was an increasing demand for meat. Therefore cattle-raising became a more profitable business. Some of the cattle-owners moved their ranches northward closer to the railways.

As they came, the buffaloes and Indians gradually vanished. By 1880 on the Great Plains the red-brown, black, white, and spotted backs of cattle took the places long held by the shaggy, dark forms of the buffaloes. Cowboys, too, now rode over the Plains which Indians had once occupied.

So in the 1870's and 1880's Cowboys and their Herds ranged the Plains

On his Indian pinto pony the cowboy felt that he was master of all he surveyed. He and his horse were boon companions, and he rode almost as if he were a part of his mount. Mark Twain tells us of the horsemanship of the men of the Far West.

> I have never seen such wild free magnificent horsemanship outside of a circus as these picturesquely clad Mexicans, Californians, and Mexicanized Americans displayed in Carson streets every day. How they rode! Leaning just gently forward out of the perpendicular, easy and nonchalant, with broad slouch-hat brim blown square up in front, and long *riata* swinging above the head, they swept through the town like the wind! The next minute they were only a sailing puff of dust on the far desert. If they trotted, they sat up gallantly and gracefully, and seemed part of the horse; did not go jiggering up and down after the silly Miss-Nancy fancy of the riding-schools.[1]

The cowboy dressed in a fashion which has become famous in the theater and popular in masquerades — heavy woolen shirt open at the neck; a bright-colored silk or cotton neckerchief tied in a knot in front, protecting the back of his neck from sun and wind; "chaps," boots, and gloves. In moderate weather he donned an extra woolen shirt and a leather waistcoat, which flapped in the breeze as he rode, for he refused to button it. In cold weather a short sheepskin coat was worn in place of the leather one.

Two articles of clothing were especially dear to him — his boots and his gloves. Both were badges of his calling. He never used his hands for rough tasks and he never walked unless it was necessary. His hands, white and well kept, were carefully gloved in wide-cuffed soft gauntlets, which protected them from rope burns and from the weather.

The boots were of soft leather with long, pointed toes and high heels. The soles were light and thin. These useless-looking boots indicated to all the world that the cowboy was not one of the creatures who are forced to walk upon the earth. He sat on his pony like a king, and he was proud of being a horseman.

[1] Mark Twain, *Roughing It*, Vol. I, p. 168. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1871.

The most typical article of clothing which the cowboy wore was a pair of "chaps" (*chaparajos*). Chaps were a kind of leather overalls which protected the legs of the rider through country that was thick with brush, cactus, or prickly-pear shrubs. The chaps were really two long, very wide, leather or sheepskin trousers connected by a narrow belt. They were cut away at the back so that they would not hamper the man on horseback and would not overheat the body, as all leather clothing does.

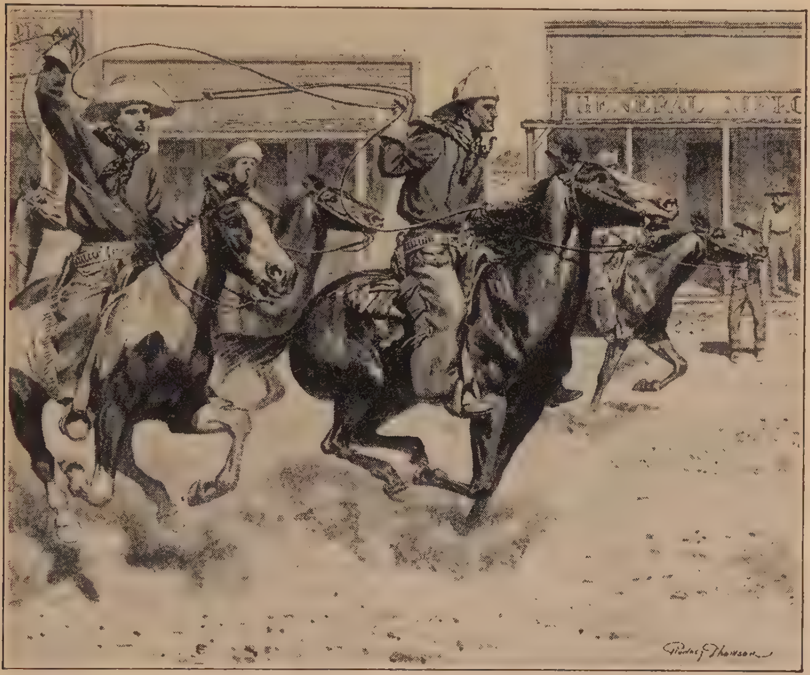

FIG. 143. When the cowboys had a holiday they rode to the nearest town, where they spent their time and often most of their money

A coiled rope hung from the pommel of the cowboy's saddle. This was usually a hand-woven Mexican lasso of wonderfully strong hemp. The horse was curbed with the cruel Spanish bit, but this was used very little, since the cowboy knew more subtle ways of guiding his steed.

During the round-up season in the spring the cowboy's work was especially hard and exciting. It was at this time that the calves born on the range during the winter were branded with their owner's mark. The herds from all over the range were brought to one place on the ranch. Then the cowboy's task was to separate the young calves from the herd, so that they could be branded. This was very difficult. The cattle moved about constantly, and their densely packed bodies left little space through which the cowboy could ride; as the cattle tossed their heads he looked down upon an agitated sea of horns.

Into that whirlpool of powerful, restless animals the cowboy plunged on his light, wiry pony. The cattle lunged against him, thrusting upon him from all sides, but he had no time to heed such petty difficulties. His eyes and those of his intelligent mount were roving everywhere in search of the little frightened calves, which ran and dodged near their mothers.

As soon as the rider had sighted a small, bobbing head, he started toward it. The pony needed no guidance, for he could sense at once which cow and calf his rider wanted. Soon the pony was driving the cow toward the outside of the herd. He nosed against her flanks, giving her an occasional little bite to remind her that he was master of the situation. Unwillingly the cow with her calf was forced toward the edge of the swaying, heaving mass of cattle. A sudden swish of the cowboy's lasso through the air, and the calf, roped by the heels, was dragged away from the herd. But soon the little animal was running back to his mother, his young hide singed and smarting from the owner's brand on his hip.

This work of "cutting out" was very exhausting to the horses as well as to the cowboy. Every cowboy needed eight or ten horses a day, since a single horse could stand the strain only an hour or two.

When work was over and supper had been eaten, the cowboys would sometimes sit around and sing. Usually a harmonica, a banjo, or a guitar accompanied their voices. Or perhaps some of the cowboys would entertain the others with stories. But these times of recreation were short, for work began almost with the first streaks of dawn.

Such was the picturesque life of the cowboys on the cattle ranches. We see that a great new kind of occupation was growing up on the Great Plains in the 1870's and 1880's, a new section was being settled, and a new kind of life was being added to the history of American civilization.

HOW THE FREE LANDS OF THE UNITED STATES WERE DISTRIBUTED

If you were to buy a farm today in the states of Iowa, Kansas, Illinois, or Nebraska you would have to pay between $200 and $400 an acre. In other regions in the United States, where the soil is less fertile, you would pay from $25 to $100 an acre. In 1860 the very same land was almost free for the taking. In Iowa, for example, there were 4,500,000 acres of rich, level loam which the government offered to any farmers who would work it.

By 1860 our country had rounded out its present continental boundaries. There were then approximately 1,500,000,000 acres of *public land.* About 450,000,000 acres of that vast domain had been surveyed by the government. About 400,000,000 acres had been given away or sold to private citizens and land companies; but in 1860 there was still a tremendous territory of more than a billion acres which belonged to the whole body of the American people.

During the next seven years Congress pledged more than 180,000,000 acres (!) of the public land to railroad companies which were trying to lay track across the Western states. Not all that enormously valuable tract was actually delivered, but 112,000,000 acres were finally turned over to the companies. The Northern Pacific Railroad alone received "47,000,000 acres, a domain larger in extent than all New England, and Maryland besides." The total "empire thus granted away exceeded the area of the six New England states, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia." The transcontinental railroads were given the land in strips 20 to 80 miles wide running along either side of their tracks.

Thus in 1860 nearly one fifth of the public land of the United States had been granted to the railroads. In addition other generous gifts of land were made to individuals and to state governments for the purpose of improving the country.

THE HOMESTEAD ACT OF 1862 MADE LAND FREE

There was a feeling in the Eastern states that young people could find a glorious opportunity by "going West and growing up with the country." Government officials and newspaper editors like Horace Greeley wrote and talked of the benefits of the Western lands. Indeed Greeley's advice to young men was "Go West!" Foreign peoples believed that the United States was rich enough to give every immigrant a farm. A popular song of 1860 illustrates the spirit of the day:

> Of all the mighty nations in the East or in the West
> This glorious Yankee nation is the greatest and the best;
> We have room for all creation and our banner is unfurled,
> Here's a general invitation to the people of the world.
>
> Come along, come along, make no delay,
> Come from every nation, come from every way;
> Our lands are broad enough, don't be alarmed,
> For Uncle Sam is rich enough to give us all a farm.[1]

As years passed people began to think of all the vast extent of unused land. "Why should we have to pay for this land?" they asked themselves. "Isn't it ours? It belongs to the people of the United States. We are those people. Why should we pay for what already belongs to us?"

As a result of a widespread protest against the practice of giving land to companies of business men, the government passed the Homestead Act. This act provided that any person over 21 years of age who should occupy and use a piece of land not more than 160 acres in size, live on that land for five years, make certain improvements, and pay a fee of $10 should become the owner of the land.

The Homestead Act was a blessing to poor pioneers, for it was not too difficult to clear and cultivate 160 acres, to remain on the land for five years, and to pay $10 for registering the claim. Tens of thousands of people took up homesteads in the West under the law. Here are the figures of the public land settled in the four years from 1865 to 1869.

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[1] Ellis P. Oberholtzer, *A History of the United States since the Civil War.* By permission of The Macmillan Company, publishers.

Acres of Public Land Settled in Four Years	
1865	1,160,000
1866	1,892,000
1867	1,788,000
1868	2,328,923

Civil War Veterans became Homesteaders also

From 1861 to 1865 the United States was torn by a war between the Northern states and the Southern slave states. In 1865 peace was restored and the United States faced a problem.

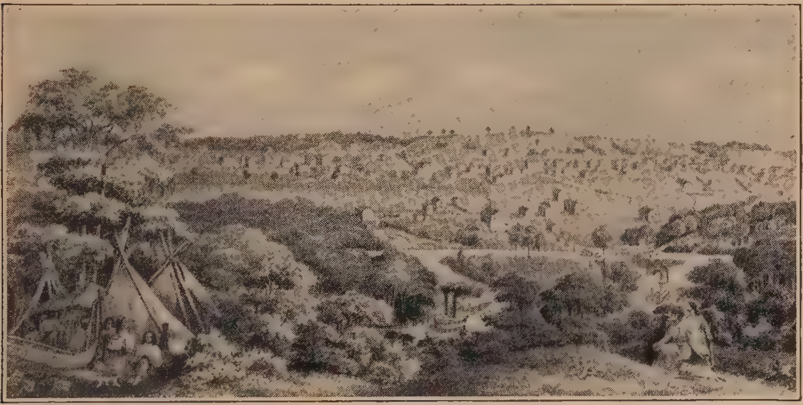

Fig. 144. Homestead country in Minnesota about 1860. Steamboats were already plying the rivers before the Indians had disappeared from the region. (From a lithograph. Courtesy of the Minnesota Historical Society, Saint Paul)

The men who had fought in the armies were released from service, and many now found themselves without work. Furthermore, many laborers who had been employed as extra workers during the war were in the same plight. For these soldiers and unemployed laborers there were thousands of square miles of unused land on which they might settle and which would be theirs almost for the asking. In addition the Western lands would act as a sort of safety valve to prevent an explosion in industry.

Much of the land that was not homesteaded was given to the state governments for the advancement of education. Every state received 30,000 acres of public land for each representative it had in Congress. Many of the state governments later sold the land to individuals for low prices ranging from 44 cents to $6 an acre and, with the money so obtained, built agricultural and mechanical colleges for training young men and women. These colleges — and practically every state built one or more of them — were called the Land Grant Colleges.

Additional lands were turned over to the states, so that they might build roads, bridges, and canals, or make other necessary improvements. When a territory was admitted to the Union, its government was granted land to be used for putting up public buildings. Old soldiers who had served in the War of 1812 and in the Mexican War were also granted land for past services to the nation.

In these and other ways much of the "free" public land was either sold or given away before 1890.

IN THE 1860'S AND 1870'S HOMESTEADERS MOVED ON TO THE WESTERN PLAINS

All during the 1860's and 1870's caravans of covered wagons and herded cattle could be seen traveling westward to the tall untrodden grass of the northern prairie. At night around the camp fire the pioneer families sang songs of the frontier of their day. There was one which began like this:

Cheer up, brothers, as we go
O'er the mountains, westward ho,
Where the herds of deer and buffalo
Furnish the fare.

Another ballad which many husbands and wives sang together was this. The husband started:

Away to Colorado a journey I'll go,
For to double my fortune as other men do,
While here I must labor each day in the field
And the winter consumes all the summer doth yield.

The wife would then reply:

> Dear husband, I've noticed with a sorrowful heart
> That you long have neglected your plow and your cart,
> Your horses, sheep, cattle at random do run,
> And your new Sunday jacket goes every day on.
> Oh, stay on your farm and you'll suffer no loss,
> For the stone that keeps rolling will gather no moss.

But the husband would insist:

> O, wife, let us go; oh, don't let us wait;
> I long to be there, and I long to be great,
> While you some fair lady and who knows but I
> May be some rich governor long 'fore I die,
> Whilst here I must labor each day in the field,
> And the winter consumes all the summer doth yield.

A man who had taken part in a trip over the prairies of Minnesota and the Dakotas in 1869 wrote:

> We have met today a long train of wagons, filled with emigrants, who have come from Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, and some from Ohio.
>
> Look at the wagons, each drawn by four oxen,— driven either by the owner or one of his barefoot boys. Boxes, barrels, chairs, tables, pots, and pans constitute the furniture. The grandmother, white-haired, old, and wrinkled, and the wife with an infant in her arms, with three or four romping children around her, all sitting on a feather-bed beneath the white canvas covering. . . . A barefooted boy, as bright-eyed as Whittier's ideal, . . . marches behind, with his rosy-cheeked sister, driving a cow and a calf. . . .
>
> Not only along this road, but everywhere, we may behold just such scenes. A great army of occupation is moving into the state. The advance is all along the line. Towns and villages are springing up as if by magic in every county. Every day adds thousands of acres to those already under cultivation. . . .
>
> See how this region, which we all thought of as lying too near the north pole to be worth anything, has developed its resources! In 1854 the number of acres under cultivation in the state was only fifteen thousand, or about two-thirds of a single township.
>
> Fifteen years have passed by, and the tilled area is estimated at about two million acres! In 1857 she imported grain; but her yield of wheat the present year is estimated at *more than twenty million bushels!*

I would have a homestead out here. True, there would be hard fare at first. The cabin would be of logs. There would be short commons for a year or two. But, with my salt and pork I would have pickerel, prairie chickens, moose, and deer. I should have calloused hands and the back-ache at times; but my sleep would be sweet. I should have no theater to visit nightly, no star actors to see, and should miss the tramp of the great multitude of the city, — the ever hurrying throng. The first year might be lonely; possibly I should have the blues now and then; but, possessing my soul with patience a twelvemonth, I should have neighbors. The railroad would come. The little log hut would give place to a mansion. Roses would bloom in the garden, and morning glories open their blue bells by the doorway. The vast expanse would wave with golden grain. Thrift and plenty, and civilization with all its comforts and luxuries would be mine.[1]

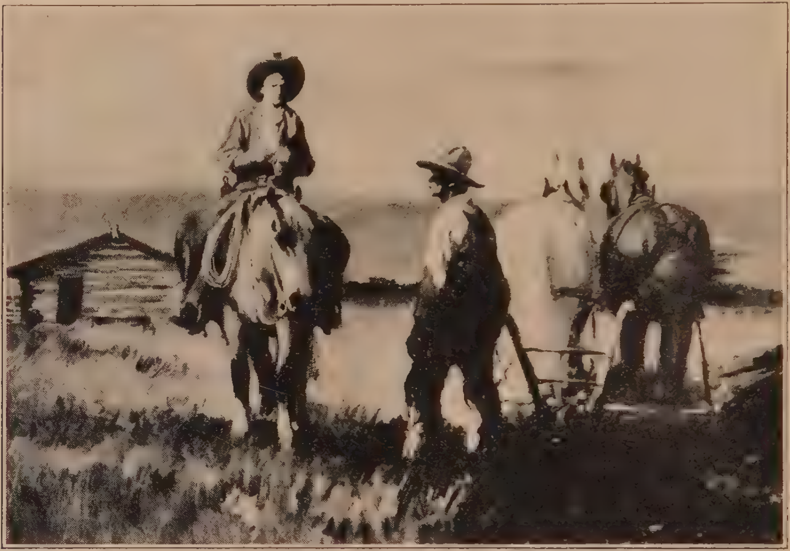

Fig. 145. The meeting of the cowboy and the homesteader. With the coming of the homesteaders, the long open range began to disappear as the settlers fenced in their farms. (From a painting by Frank Hoffman. Courtesy of Swift and Company)

Thus in the 1870's and 1880's settlers began to fill in the open plains. Squatters took some of the open range and fenced it in for their farms. Just as the cattlemen had driven the Indians and the buffaloes from this region so were they themselves vainly fighting to hold the free land for their vast herds. Soon sheepherders came in. Their greedy flocks nibbled the grass down to the roots and destroyed the cattle's pasture. By the end of the 1880's much of the free, outdoor life of the cowboys was ended. The cattle could no longer stray over miles of open country, finding food and water. The picturesque, romantic "Wild West" was becoming settled by steady, hard-working farmers.

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[1] Charles C. Coffin, *The Seat of Empire*, pp. 127–130. Fields, Osgood and Company, Boston, 1870.

Gold and other metals lured men into the Rocky Mountains

The barren slopes of the western mountains from Arizona to Montana are full of gold and silver!

So ran the word from mouth to mouth during the 1870's and 1880's. From the worn-out gold diggings in California men rushed eastward. From the farms of the Mississippi and Ohio valleys and the cities east of the Mississippi they rushed westward to stake out claims for hidden riches. The human tide was turning backward from the Far West to meet a new tide flowing from the East. Wherever there was a chance of finding gold and silver, straggling mining camps sprang up overnight. Pack-horse trains and laden burros and mules plodded through the mountain canyons in Nevada, Idaho, New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, and Montana, bringing the fortune-hunters.

Thus the lure of precious metals was added to that of ranch and farm land, pulling people into the unsettled section of the last American frontier.

The story of the development of Montana and Idaho is typical of the way new mining states sprang up in the mountain section.

In the early 1860's some Canadian travelers lost their way while crossing a valley in Montana and stumbled upon gold. Immediately, at a place called Bannack, they formed a little settlement. In a magically short time Bannack became a mining town of respectable size with a crude row of log cabins straggling down the crooked main street, housing some 2000 persons.

Suddenly there came a rumor of better diggings east of Bannack. Instantly there was a new stampede, and a new mushroom community called Virginia City was started. Within a year Virginia City counted 10,000 people.

Already $16,000,000 in gold had flowed out of the near-by regions. Granite buildings replaced some of the log huts. Churches were built. Men sent for their wives and children and prepared to settle down and become "prominent citizens."

The discovery of metals in the West drew settlers like a magnet into even the highest of the mountain regions. Men thirsting for wealth sold their possessions, packed a few necessities, said farewell to their wives and families, and hastened to be among the first to stake out claims. Some "struck it rich," settled down, sent for their families, and prepared to live on a grand scale.

Many of the fortune-hunters were not so lucky as to find claims that would yield rich ore, and they were usually the restless ones who pushed on feverishly to the next mining camp that was being opened. "Better luck at the next camp" was their motto. Some of these later drifted into other occupations and built up tiny fortunes by careful saving and hard work.

Even during the gold rushes a few farseeing settlers in the present states of Montana, Wyoming, southern Idaho, and Oregon turned to agriculture after the first failure to locate a paying claim. These people knew that the mining camp must be fed, and they set about tilling the soil and reaping a rich profit from their farm products. Others imported herds from the overstocked ranches of Texas during the 1870's and so greatly increased the number of their cattle that they were known as the "cattle barons."

The region where gold was found covered a part of the territory of North and South Dakota and Nebraska. In 1863 the territory which extended from the eastern boundary of Oregon to the Dakotas was divided and named Idaho. In this region "strikes" were being made everywhere — gold, silver, and copper in Butte and the Boise basin. So rapidly were the mountain towns growing from the inrush of settlers that in 1864 the eastern portion of Idaho became the new territory of Montana.

In 1864, also, gold was discovered in Last Chance Gulch, now the main street of Helena, Montana. With amazing rapidity Helena expanded in a setting of grand mountain scenery. By 1876 Montana was said to have yielded $144,400,000 worth of gold. The territory and the rich mining properties west of it were "one field of bewildering wealth."

Of the prospectors who turned back eastward into the mountains, not many found gold, but they were often richly rewarded, nevertheless, when during the 1880's many found silver, copper, lead, zinc, and other metals. In 1879 lead and silver mines were opened in Leadville, Colorado. In Nevada great quantities of silver, copper, lead, and zinc were found. In Montana silver was discovered at Philipsburg and Butte in the late 1870's. During the early 1880's copper was found at Butte, and it once more became a roaring mining town. After 1880 copper was also struck at Bisbee, Arizona, where silver had been found several years before. In 1884 one of the wildest stampedes in the history of mining occurred when silver and lead were found in undreamed of quantities in the Cœur d'Alene region of Idaho.

Important supplies of coal and oil were found, too, which also caused towns to grow. In 1882 coal was found near Cedar City, Utah, and mines were opened to supply fuel for the near-by iron mines. In Wyoming petroleum had been known since 1832, when it was found near Lander, and was used by the early trappers as liniment and by overland immigrants for axle grease for their wagons. Not until the drilling of three wells in 1883 and 1884, however, were any important wells opened. Unfortunately they were far from the railroad, and the oil could not then be produced on a paying basis.

Utah was always the exception among the Western states, perhaps because of its early settlement by Mormons. The Mormons settled in Utah in the late 1840's and soon began to manufacture things. By 1850 they had discovered iron, laid plans for a foundry, and sent to Europe for blowers, molders, and furnace-operators. Two years later pig iron was made in Utah. Brigham Young, their leader, did not encourage prospecting for gold and other metals. He preferred to have his community founded on agriculture rather than on mining.

The rough life of the new mining communities

Thus from Montana to Colorado, Nevada, and Arizona a new kind of American life was developing, side by side with cattle-raising and farming. During the years of the 1860's and 1870's it was a wild ungoverned sort of life.

The mining towns were raw, primitive settlements. Men crowded into any kind of shelter — tents, caves, box cars, or brush shelters built upon the pattern of Indian shacks — until new and better homes could be made fit for their families.

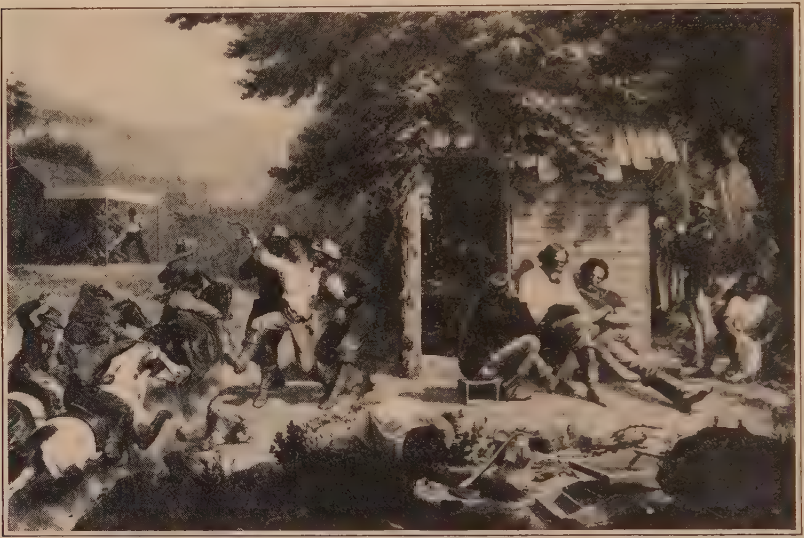

Fig. 146. Sundays were holidays at the mines. If the men worked at all, it was at such jobs as washing or mending their clothes. Horse racing and card playing helped to amuse them. (From a painting by Charles C. Nahl. Courtesy of the E. B. Crocker Art Gallery, Sacramento, California)

The camp followers of the mines came with the first arrivals in the mushroom town. They were professional gamblers and card sharks, saloon and dance-hall keepers, who were eager to pounce upon the riches of the miners. Almost every third cabin in the town was a saloon where whisky was sold for 50 cents worth of gold dust a glass. Gambling tables dotted the barroom. Dance-hall girls entertained the miners. Every night there were quarrels, shots, wounds, and sometimes even murders.

At night an innocent bystander never knew when a street fight might suddenly break out. Peaceful citizens took care to be in their cabins or to dodge to safety when a shot was heard. Respectable women dared not be seen on the streets of a mining town after nightfall. Even in daylight they did not go out of their homes unattended.

Sunday was the most exciting day in the mining camp. The stores and saloons were wide open. Horse racing amused some of the miners. Others gathered to watch powerful men pound each other in a boxing ring. The streets rang with shouts of encouragement to the fighters. Fights broke out among the spectators over the ability of the boxers. Usually such fights ended as suddenly as they had begun. Two men who had been on the verge of a battle a few moments before would be seen strolling arm and arm into the saloon, where each would beg for the privilege of paying for the drinks.

Newcomers to the mining camps sometimes regarded the life with horror and dismay. Yet there was a fascination about it and about the honest good nature of the miners which conquered qualms and in the end absorbed the newcomers.

The Part the Railroad played in Ending the Life of the Last Frontier

The old, old story of trade was retold on the last frontier as Eastern traders and Western settlers sought better transportation and communication.

The cattlemen, homesteaders, and miners had scarcely settled the prairie and mountain lands, when they began to trade with the merchants of the Atlantic seaboard and the Mississippi Valley. The frontiersmen needed Eastern manufactures, and the Eastern city dwellers needed Western food and raw materials. So, as in the days of the Ohio settlements, the demand for trade brought better and cheaper means of transportation into the Western states.

The railroad-builders were farseeing business men. There was James J. Hill, for example, the builder of the Great Northern. Hill saw that the land of the Northwest could be claimed for farms and towns if a means of regular, speedy transportation were built there. So Hill and his business friends built railroads through open country where there were no settlements and farms or even roads and at the same time started campaigning in the East and Middle West to attract people to the region through which they were building the railroad.

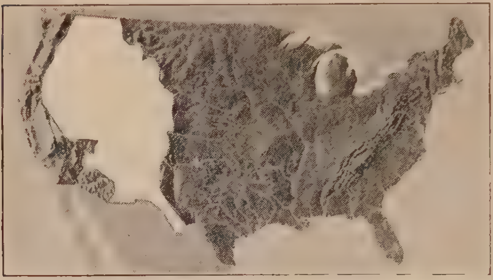

FIG. 147. Even today the area shown in white is very important as a mining, grazing, and agricultural region

In all the cities they advertised the free land of Minnesota, the Dakotas, Montana, Idaho, and Washington. Their agents visited the farms of the older communities, urging people to go West. Hill also preached to the Easterners the danger to their health in the life of factory towns and even went to the expense of running free excursions through the Northwestern country. He wanted people to know about the beauty and the possibilities of the region, so that they would make their homes there.

In many parts of the Northwest, settlements followed the railroads as thousands of restless settlers moved in. Great wheat fields began to checker the Minnesota and Dakota plains, and grain elevators rose beside the tracks of Hill's Great Northern Railroad.

After the coming of the railroad eastern Montana changed. Farming and cattle-raising expanded eastward, and the raising of sheep and cattle greatly increased. Wheat farms sprang up along the railway as soon as transportation was available to ship the wheat cheaply. By 1890 the mining state of Montana had more than 5000 farms, and these were rivaling mining in importance.

By 1890 in southern Idaho, also, dry and irrigated farming had replaced mining in importance. The first farms and cattle ranches had begun in the valleys beside the mines, but with the coming of the railways food-raising became ever more important. Sheep and cattle were imported in the 1870's, and during later years sugar beets and other irrigated crops proved successful. Idaho potatoes became known everywhere for their great size.

So the railroad more than any one other factor hastened the end of the last frontier. When the railroads came through (in the 1860's and 1870's), the days of the open cattle ranges and the lawless mining camps ended. "Nesters," as the settlers were called, flocked into the river valleys, and irrigation changed the cattle range into a peaceful farming region during the late 1870's and the early 1880's. Law-abiding farmers were now attracted to a West which was steadily changing from its old wild ways to an era of orderly settlement. These law-respecting farmers were not at all welcome, and both the "cattle barons" and the miners tried their best to prevent the fencing of the range and the end of the frontier life. Mining changed, too, in various ways as it passed into the hands of Eastern corporations to a large extent and became a well-arranged industry. The graph of figure 148 reminds you that railroads continued to grow rapidly after 1870. You know from your study of figure 167 in *An Introduction to American Civilization* that today a great web of railroads extends all over the United States.

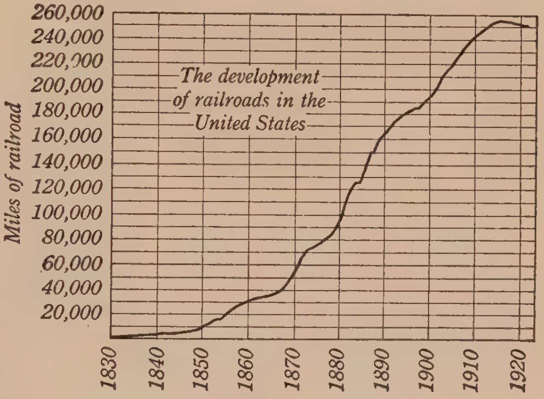

FIG. 148

IN THIS WAY SETTLEMENT OF THE PLAINS AND MOUNTAINS ADDED NEW STATES TO THE UNION

Numbers will make vivid the rapid growth of the West. In 1860 Montana was an almost unpeopled wilderness. In 1880 it had 39,159 people. In 1920 its population was more than 500,000.

In 1860 Nebraska had 28,841; in 1920 it had 1,296,372.

In 1860 Nevada had 6,857 people; in 1920 it had 77,407.

So it was with the other Western states. In 1860 there were only scattered hamlets and ranches in each. Thirty years later almost all of them had the required 60,000 inhabitants and had been admitted to the Union as states.

We have learned that although the desert and the mountain states had been considered uninviting for settlement, people did move there in great numbers. Later, in spite of the semiarid land and climate, settlers discovered that certain kinds of farming would pay. Prospectors had already found gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, and other minerals in the mountains.

Even after minerals were discovered in the barren mountain country, many military men attached to Western forts predicted that it would always be necessary for the people there to import food from the Middle West. These predictions proved to be incorrect, for in the mountains there were deep fertile valleys where farm produce could be grown and where cattle and sheep throve the year round on the fresh grass, protected from wind and weather by the natural shelter of the steep slopes.

So in Colorado, in Montana, and in Idaho, after the first fever of staking out mining claims had burned itself out, men began to homestead land for farming. In the 1880's as cattle became plentiful there, dairying became profitable, and it was found that by irrigating the land sugar beets would grow on the plateaus. Some wheat and other grains were raised so successfully that before many years had passed many sections of Colorado, Nebraska, and other prairie and mountain states became garden spots. Farmers became prosperous. Villages grew into pleasant towns, and by 1890 another permanent and unique kind of civilization was added to America.

With the Coming of Permanent Settlements in Western United States the Buffalo disappeared, and the Power of the Indian was gone Forever

If you had seen the prairies black with buffaloes in the days before 1850 you would have thought they could never be killed off. Yet in a few years they were gone. The hunters, the Far Western settlers passing over the plains, and finally the settlers on the plains themselves killed them with such needless haste that the herds grew smaller and smaller, and at last practically disappeared.

The Indians, so valiant in defending their last home, also gave way before the white men. We cannot tell you here how treaties were made with them which were not kept, how they were driven from their lands, or how the remnants of the tribes were herded on reservations. That is a long story which you will read later, in the next volume of this history.

In the end the white man had conquered, and he had reached his last frontier. By 1890 the story of frontier life was ended. A period in our history had closed — a period of so much action, so much romance, that sometimes we look back and regret its passing. Other periods have and will have their own romance, but the romance of the pioneer in the United States is dead.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Bush, Bertha A. A Prairie Rose. Little, Brown & Company, Boston, 1925. Adventures in home-making of a pioneer girl.

Cather, Willa. O Pioneers! Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1913. Story of farm life in Nebraska about 40 years ago.

Eggleston, Edward. The Hoosier School Boy. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. Interesting story of schoolboy life in Indiana about 1850.

Eggleston, Edward. The Hoosier School Master. Orange Judd Publishing Company, New York, 1892. Interesting and amusing story of pioneer life in Indiana.

Garland, Hamlin. Boy Life on the Prairie. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1923. A boy's life on the prairie.

Garland, Hamlin. A Son of the Middle Border. The Macmillan Company, New York 1917. Interesting story of the author's own life on the prairie after the Civil War.

Harte, Bret. The Luck of Roaring Camp. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. Interesting short stories of Western mining camps.

Harte, Bret. A Waif of the Plains. The story of a fifteen-year-old boy who went to California.

Hough, Emerson. The Passing of the Frontier, Vol. XXVI of The Chronicles of America series. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1921. Interesting account of the last frontier.

Jackson, H. H. Ramona. Little, Brown & Company, Boston. Tragic love story of an Indian youth and a half-Indian maiden brought up in a Spanish family of Southern California.

Stewart, Elinore P. Letters of a Woman Homesteader. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1914. Letters written by a homesteader of recent days.

Twain, Mark (Samuel L. Clemens). Roughing It. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1871. Don't miss this amusing account of Western experiences.

CHAPTER XV

A BACKWARD GLANCE AT THE WESTWARD MOVEMENT AND THE CONQUEST OF THE RED MAN'S CONTINENT

A Moving Picture of the Westward Movement, 1790–1890

In 1600 North America was the red man's continent; in 1890 most of it belonged to white men. That is the amazing story of America's settlement.

In less than three centuries millions of pale-skinned Europeans had migrated to North America and had conquered and settled the entire stretch of continent between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

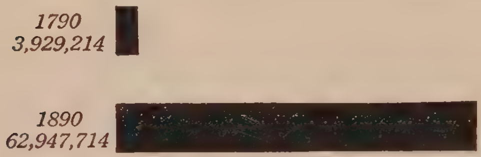

Fig. 149. Population in the United States in 1790 and in 1890

Figures 150–153 give a moving picture of this great westward movement. Study carefully this graphic summary, for there is no more important series of maps in the study of our country's history. Compare them with Fig. 149. The graph and maps sum up one of the most remarkable movements of human beings which the world has ever seen.

In figure 150 notice that by 1790, about 180 years after the landing of the first settlers, the white man had secured only a foothold on the eastern slopes and plains of the Atlantic coast. The Indian was still unquestioned ruler of the greater part of the continent. The forests north and south of the Ohio, the rolling plains of the Mississippi Valley, and the plateaus and mountain valleys of the West, still belonged to him.

It was during the next 100 years, from 1790 to 1890, that the new Americans conquered the wilderness and made their homes in every section of the area between the Atlantic and the Pacific.

Only 100 years were needed to complete the moving picture once it had started at the close of the Revolutionary War. It was indeed an amazing spectacle. First, hunters and traders invaded the beloved wilderness of the Indian in search of solitude and profit. During all this time poor, land-hungry farmers steadily settled farther west, clearing the forest and building crude communities. Prospectors roved farther westward to tap the mountains in search of metal. Then came cattlemen. As communities developed, mechanics, and professional men too, turned westward to meet the needs of the growing communities. Inward from the seacoast the procession marched through gaps in the Eastern mountains. Again and again white faces were turned westward through forests, across plains, and over mountains. Before them the Indians again and again made a desperate stand, then retreated and scattered.

The maps summarize the thrilling story of the white man's march. They remind us how tiny streams of humanity straggled into the rich river valleys along the banks of the Ohio and the Mississippi and after 1790 moved rapidly westward, hugging the water courses as much as possible.

Thirty years passed, and in 1820 the Mississippi Valley was becoming permanently settled. On both banks of the river from New Orleans to Illinois farms and villages spread back. Both Indiana and Illinois had attracted enough settlers to be admitted to the Union as states.

Their population surged upward during the next 30 years. Between 1820 and 1850 Missouri, Arkansas, Michigan, Florida, Texas, Iowa, Wisconsin, and California followed Louisiana, Indiana, Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, and Maine into the Union. Towns had grown up along the Missouri and Red rivers, and roads were worn into the land by pioneers advancing ever westward toward Oregon and California.

Then came the last lap of the movement between 1850 and 1890 as the conquest of the red man's continent was being completed. Map-makers no longer drew a zigzag line through the country dividing "inhabited" land from "free, uninhabited land." In 1858 Minnesota became a state and West Virginia followed it into the Union in 1863. Eleven more Western states had been

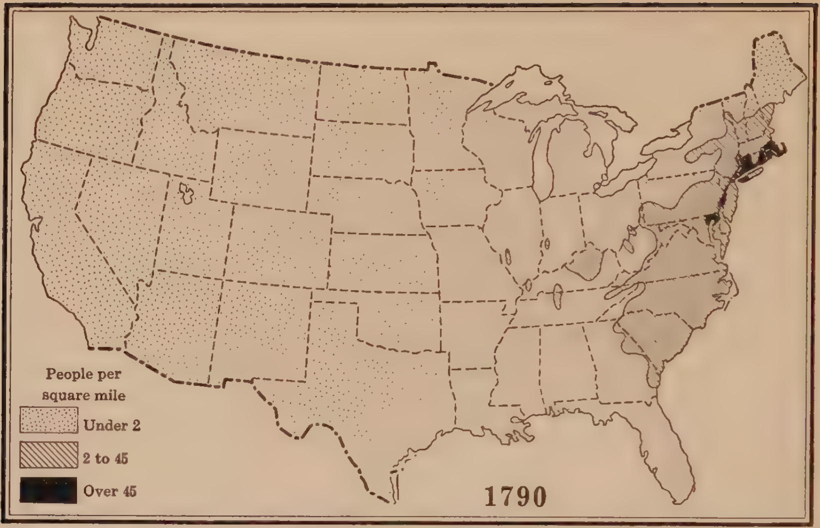
People per square mile
Under 2
2 to 45
Over 45
1790

FIG. 150. By 1790 the United States included all the land between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mississippi River, with the exception of Florida. Only a very small proportion of this land was occupied by more than 45 people to the square mile. Very little territory had been settled west of the Appalachian Mountains

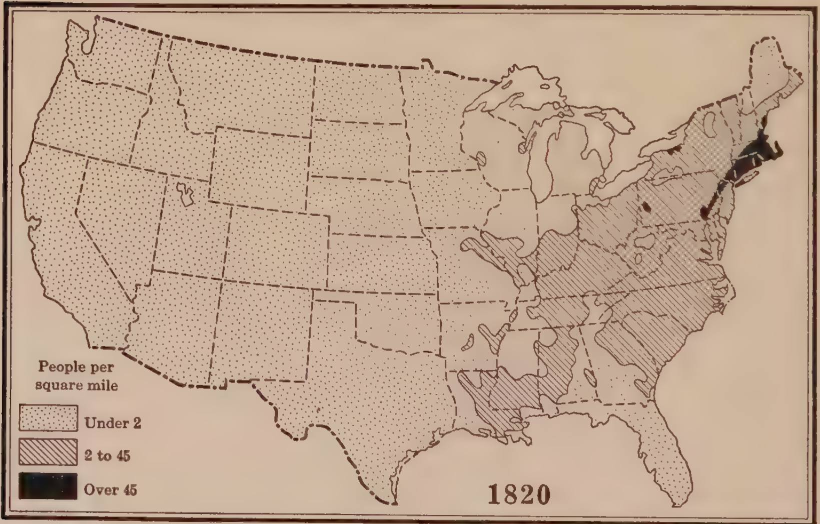
People per square mile
Under 2
2 to 45
Over 45
1820

FIG. 151. By 1820 the United States had acquired Florida and, through the Louisiana Purchase, a huge strip of land west of the Mississippi River. By this time, the area in which lived more than 45 people to the square mile had doubled and settlements were pushing south and southwest with great rapidity

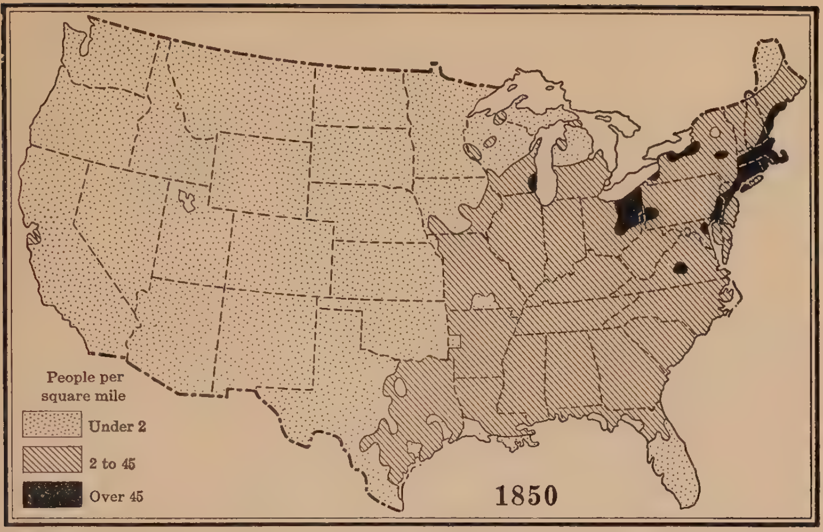
People per square mile
Under 2
2 to 45
Over 45
1850

FIG. 152. By 1850 the United States comprised almost all the land shown on the map from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific Ocean. Notice how much larger the areas of densest population had grown since 1820 and that new heavily populated areas had sprung up. Notice also that the frontier had crept still farther west and south

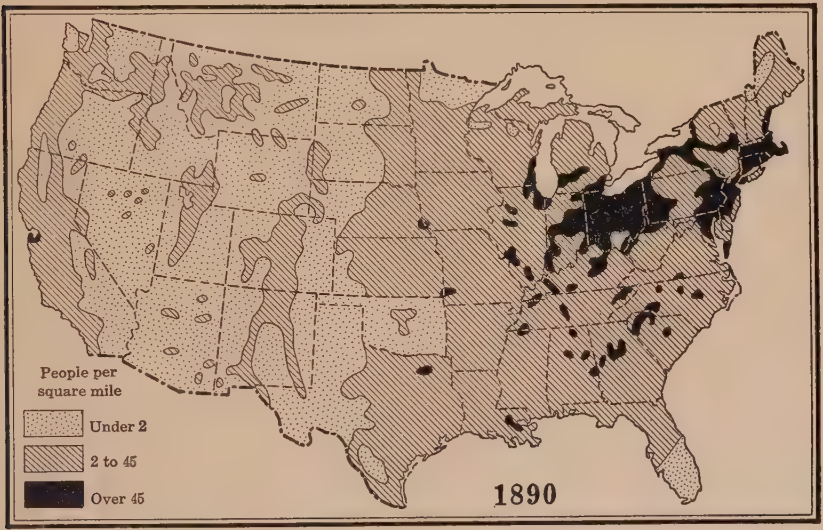
People per square mile
Under 2
2 to 45
Over 45
1890

FIG. 153. By 1890 the United States had reached the limits of its present boundaries. The frontier of settlement had disappeared. Towns and cities were to be found in all parts of the United States. In the eastern half, however, where the great industrial and commercial centers had grown, the population was not only greater but it was more evenly distributed than in the western half

admitted to the Union by 1890, nearly rounding out the present number of states.[1]

Oregon	(1859)	Colorado	(1876)	Montana	(1889)
Kansas	(1861)	North Dakota	(1889)	Wyoming	(1890)
Nevada	(1864)	South Dakota	(1889)	Idaho	(1890)
Nebraska	(1867)	Washington	(1889)		

In 1790 less than 4,000,000 people lived in small settled communities along the Atlantic coast. In 1890 nearly 63,000,000 people had scattered out over more than 3,000,000 square miles, from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific; from Canada to Mexico.

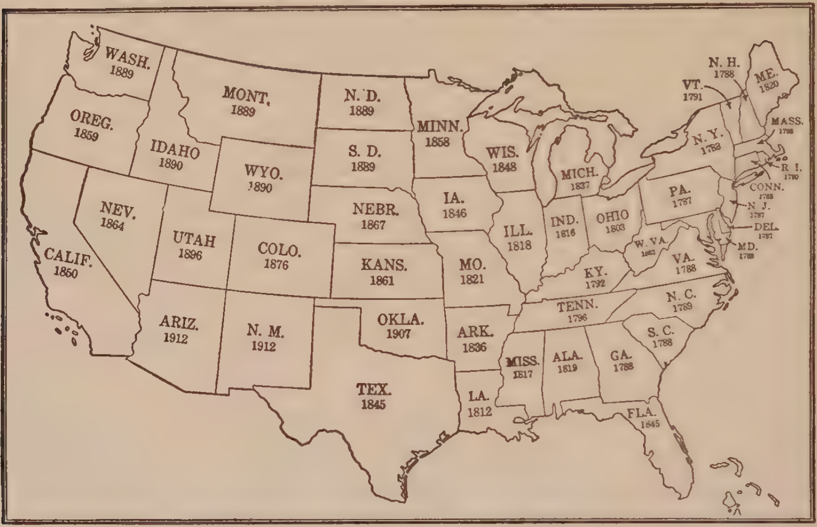
WASH. 1889
OREG. 1859
CALIF. 1850
NEV. 1864
IDAHO 1890
MONT. 1889
WYO. 1890
UTAH 1896
ARIZ. 1912
COLO. 1876
N. M. 1912
N. D. 1889
S. D. 1889
NEBR. 1867
KANS. 1861
OKLA. 1907
TEX. 1845
MINN. 1858
IA. 1846
MO. 1821
ARK. 1836
LA. 1812
WIS. 1848
ILL. 1818
MICH. 1837
IND. 1816
OHIO 1803
KY. 1792
TENN. 1796
MISS. 1817
ALA. 1819
GA. 1788
FLA. 1845
S. C. 1788
N. C. 1789
VA. 1788
W. VA. 1863
PA. 1787
N. Y. 1788
VT. 1791
N. H. 1788
ME. 1820
MASS. 1788
R. I. 1790
CONN. 1788
N. J. 1787
DEL. 1787
MD. 1788

FIG. 154. The forty-eight states of the Union and the years in which they were admitted

In 1890 the government reported as follows:

> Up to and including 1880 the country had a frontier of settlement, but at present the unsettled area has been so broken into by isolated bodies of settlement that there can hardly be said to be a frontier line. In the discussion of its extent and its westward movement it cannot, therefore, any longer have a place in the census reports.

The frontier had passed.

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[1] Utah (1896), Oklahoma (1907), New Mexico (1912), and Arizona (1912) were the last four states to be admitted, thus totalling 48 states in the United States of America.

SUMMARY OF THE ACQUIRING OF THE LAND

We need to see in brief perspective not only the westward settlement but also how the territory included in our country today was obtained. The map of figure 153 summarizes the chief steps by which that was done.

In 1783, at the close of the Revolutionary War, the United States owned all the land as far west as the Mississippi River, except Florida and West Florida, which still belonged to Spain. Spain also claimed most of the land west of the Mississippi,—"Louisiana,"—but later she was forced to give this to France.

Twenty years afterwards (1803) the United States made the famous Louisiana Purchase from France. Thus an enormous addition was made to our territory, nearly as large as the land east of the Mississippi. In the meantime England, the United States, and Russia claimed the great Pacific Northwest region — the Oregon territory. To the south Spain claimed the entire California territory as well as the mountains and deserts east of it to the Rocky Mountains.

By annexation and conquest, by purchase from Spain and Mexico, and by agreement with England the remaining great tracts fell under the control of the United States government during the next 50 years. First, in 1819, Spain ceded Florida and West Florida. Second, most of the remaining territory was gained by war with Mexico: the annexation of Texas led to the war, which resulted in the acquisition of territory covered by the present states of California, Arizona, New Mexico, Nevada, and Utah; some compensation was given Mexico.

During those very same years the westward movement went steadily forward on the northern frontier as settlers streamed into the Oregon territory, where they found British and American trappers and fur-traders. The British Hudson's Bay Company still ruled the first settlements, but soon it was evident that a boundary line would have to be drawn between the part of Oregon claimed by the United States and that claimed by England. In 1846 a treaty was signed, marking a boundary line between British and American Oregon. That agreement has stood to this day.

So by peaceful agreement and by military conquest the young American nation gained control of land claimed by her rival nations in Europe and in the New World. These new American people, most of them descendants of Englishmen, defeated Spain and France in the long struggle for the possession of North America.

But all this land the white men took from the Indians.

During the 100-year-long westward movement of the American pioneers, what was happening in the older settlements of the United States? What was happening in the towns and cities which were growing up behind the westward moving frontier? A great change was indeed taking place. It was during the early 1800's that the American Industrial Revolution began. Let us turn back the hands of the history clock and learn how the Industrial Revolution helped the American people to hold the land they had conquered.

UNIT VI

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN AMERICA

CHAPTER XVI

THE MECHANICAL CONQUEST OF AMERICA BEGINS: THE FIRST MACHINES, 1790–1860

BY 1790 THE ENGLISH INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION WAS ALREADY UNDER WAY

In 1790 there was hardly a power-driven machine in all America.

In England, however, as you have learned from *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World,* textile machines were coming into use and the steam engine had been found to be a commercial success. The result was already proving to be a great saving of human muscles and the production of a larger amount of goods.

After 1750, you remember, one invention had led to another. In 1764 James Hargreaves invented the spinning jenny. Arkwright thought of a way to run the jennies by water power, and Crompton improved the jenny so that it would spin 20 to 30 times as much yarn as Hargreaves's model. About twenty years after the first jenny was invented, Cartwright made a weaving loom which, like the spinning jenny, would run by water power.

In the meantime many resourceful men were looking for ways to use the steam power in an engine which would do work. Before 1700 a Frenchman named Denis Papin had thought of inclosing steam in a cylinder. Thomas Newcomen and other inventors in England seized upon his idea and succeeded in constructing a practicable steam-driven pump. Then between 1763 and 1782 James Watt took advantage of the gains made by the earlier inventors and turned out a really workable steam engine.

Although the new machines were adopted very slowly in England, they soon began to replace hand spinning wheels and hand looms. One by one factories spread throughout England, and the textile industries began to grow, until by 1790, nearly

30 years after Hargreaves had made his first model, textile machines were being used rather generally in place of hand wheels and looms. And by that time the steam engine was a real success.

In America, however, there were few machines. The colonists had been too busy with other tasks. Clearing the wilderness, building villages, towns, and cities, fighting with one another for control of their government, struggling against England's rule, and fighting the Indians at their back doors took most of their energy and time. Their interests led to better roads, stronger and faster wagons and coaches, better homes, and the possession of new land.

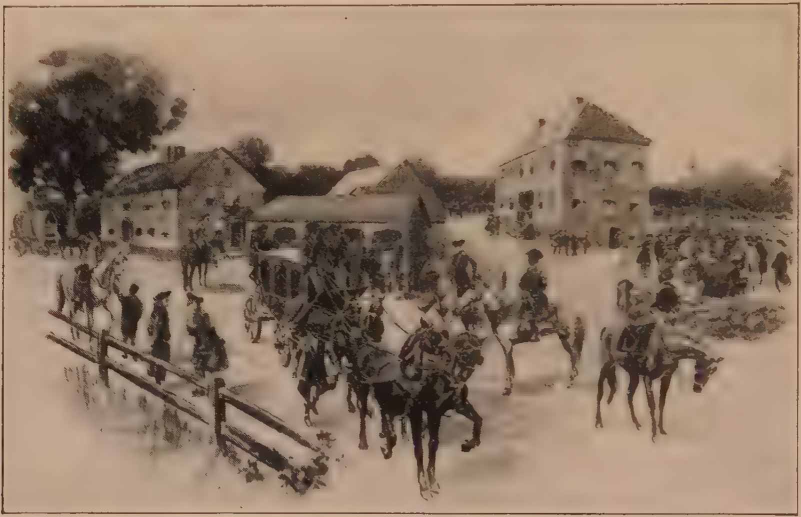

FIG. 155. Washington visits the first machine-driven cotton mill (Beverly, Massachusetts) in 1789. (Courtesy of the Essex Institute, Salem)

Yet the new English machines were not unknown in America. Newly arrived emigrants from Europe and colonists who had visited the mother country and returned brought word of them. Even before 1790 American spinners and weavers in the Eastern communities were trying to copy the inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Cartwright, and Watt. As early as 1786 Massachusetts mechanics were trying to make workable spinning and weaving machines. They would not be content until they had some of the new "timesavers" and "money-makers" with which the Englishmen were getting rich. Then, soon after 1800, men in the Eastern states of America did succeed in turning out practicable locomotives, steamboats, and factory machines.

But England tried to prevent Other Countries from Building Machines

The colonists and later the American business men were balked at first in their efforts at machine-making for lack of English models. Then, as now, the English manufacturers and merchants were very powerful in the English government. They persuaded Parliament to pass laws in 1774 to prevent not only the machines from leaving the country, but the plans and drawings of machines as well. The English textile-manufacturers were afraid that if the spinners and weavers of other countries learned how to produce yarn and cloth by machinery they might be able to turn out cheaper cloth than English factories. Hence the government officials were very careful to see that not a single machine was sent out of England.

Samuel Slater, an English Weaver, carried Machine Plans to America in his Head

But English business men and legislators could not prevent mechanics from memorizing the plans of their machinery. In 1790 Samuel Slater, an English weaver, took with him to the United States a fairly complete knowledge of weaving and of machines. Since the age of fourteen Slater had worked as an apprentice to one of Arkwright's partners and had learned the details of the weaving business from an excellent master. Fortunately for Americans he was a good mechanic as well as a good weaver.

Slater had scarcely arrived in New York when he heard of the unsuccessful attempts at textile-machine making by New England factory-owners. Moses Brown, a factory-owner in Rhode Island, was at that time experimenting with little success upon textile machines. Slater wrote to him offering his services as manager of *cotton spinning*, etc., in which business I flatter myself that I can give the greatest satisfaction, in making machinery, making good yarn, either for *stockings* or *twist*, as any that is made in England; as I have had opportunity, and an oversight, of Sir Richard Arkwright's works, and in Mr. Strutt's mill upwards of eight years.

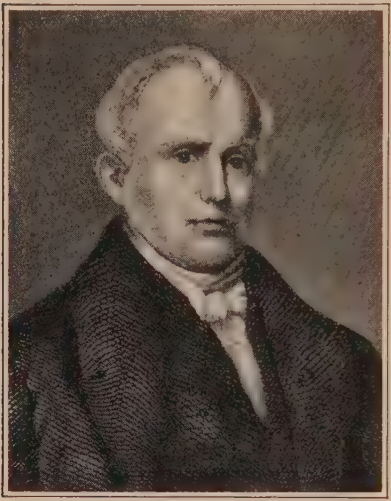

Fig. 156. Samuel Slater. (Courtesy of the New York Historical Society)

Brown replied to Slater with a good offer, which the latter accepted.

At the town of Pawtucket Slater built from memory machines which carded and spun, and before a year had passed the mill was running successfully. Soon the business began to grow larger, and more mechanics went to work for Slater. Slater's cotton mill was the first really successful one. It is today regarded as marking an important point in the development of the Industrial Revolution in America.

The First Patent Law was passed by Congress in 1790 to encourage and protect Inventors

At the time when Slater built his machines from memory there was no law in the United States to prevent anyone from copying the machines which he had copied from Arkwright's models. Some of Slater's mechanics, indeed, were in his factory solely to learn how to make and run the machines. After a short time they left his employ and built their own models.

In 1790 the newly elected Congress passed a law giving inventors of new and useful machines, devices, or appliances the sole right to make their inventions for fourteen years. This act and other similar acts were called patent laws. Later copyright laws were passed to protect writers, dramatists, painters, lecturers, and musicians from people who wanted to steal their ideas. Since that time hundreds of such laws have been passed, so that today any person who invents a new machine or device or who creates a work of art can obtain from the government a patent or copyright which will protect him from thieves of ideas.

ANOTHER IMPORTANT INVENTION — ELI WHITNEY'S COTTON GIN, 1793

Slater's mill started the cotton ball rolling. As mechanics came and went from the old factory in Pawtucket, they carried all over eastern New England plans for spinning, carding, and weaving huge amounts of cotton cloth. New mills were opening, and a great demand went up for more cotton.

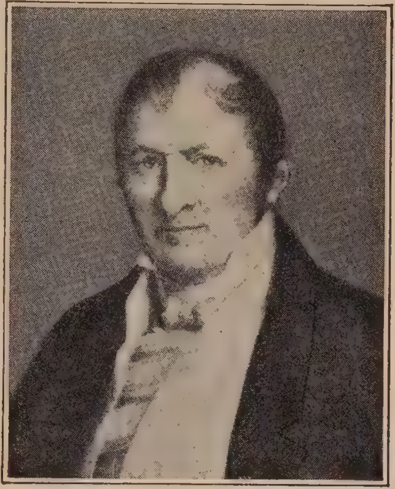

FIG. 157. Eli Whitney

The only kind of cotton that would grow in our Southern states was a "green seed" variety that was very difficult to clean. One slave working hard the entire day could clean seeds from only about a pound of cotton. Even on the largest plantations the amounts of cotton that could be prepared and shipped north in a year were very small. By the invention of a single device, it became possible for a worker to prepare 50 times as much as had been prepared by the hand method.

In 1793 Eli Whitney, a young schoolmaster, had a brilliant idea which was to change the agricultural produce of the South and to a considerable extent the textile industry of New England.

As a child Whitney had enjoyed working with tools and mechanical devices and he had partly worked his way through Yale College by using his mechanical skill. After he was graduated he accepted a position as schoolmaster in a small Southern town. On his way he changed his plans completely and gave up school-teaching altogether. He tells his father about it in the following letter:

Sept. 11th, 1793.

Dear Parent —

. . . During this time I heard much said of the extreme difficulty of ginning cotton, that is, separating it from its seeds. There were a number of very respectable gentlemen at Mrs. Greene's who all agreed that if a machine would be invented which would clean the cotton with expedition, it would be a great thing both to the country and to the inventor. I involuntarily happened to be thinking on the subject and struck out a plan of a machine in my mind, which I communicated to Miller [the agent of the family]; he was pleased with the plan and if it would answer, he would be at the whole expense. . . . In about ten days I made a little model, for which I was offered, if I would give up all right and title to it, a hundred guineas. I concluded to relinquish my school and turn my attention to perfecting the machine. I made one before I came away which required the labor of one man to turn it. . . . One man and a horse will do more than fifty men with the old machines. It makes the labor fifty times less, without throwing any class of people out of the business.

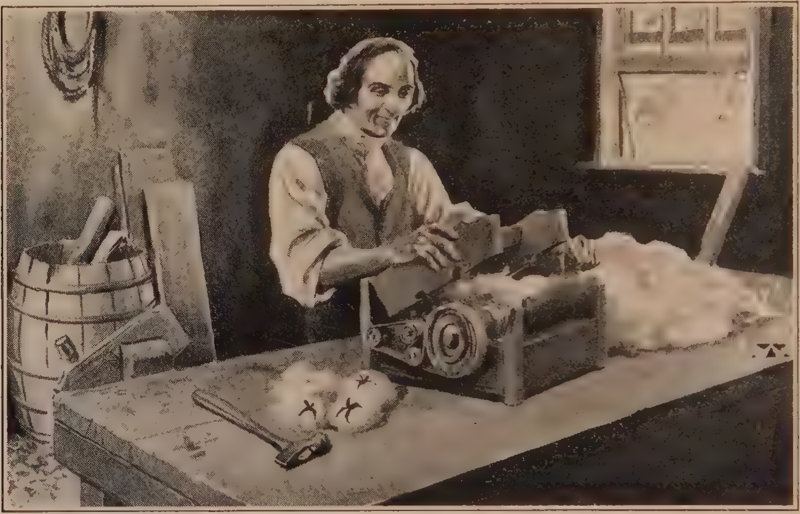

FIG. 158. Whitney's first model of the cotton gin. The invention of this small hand-driven machine changed the South from a region of tobacco, rice, and indigo production to one of cotton production

With respects to Mama I am,
kind Parent, your most ob't. Son,

Mr. Eli Whitney. Eli Whitney, Junr.

Eli Whitney was an unusually successful inventor. No loud scornful laughs and sly jeers were aimed at his cotton gin. Almost at once it was adopted by the Southern plantation-owners.

As you can see from figure 158 it was a very simple device.

How the Invention of the Cotton Gin increased the Production of Cotton

The whole world has profited more or less from the cotton gin. Eight years after the invention the production of cotton leaped from 4000 bales to 73,222 bales a year. Notice in the table the great advance in cotton production in the Southern states after that time. Whitney's invention did more than any other single factor to make possible such a huge increase in production. For quite a while after the invention became known, it was impossible for Whitney fully to supply the demand of Southern planters for his cotton gins.

Number of 500-Pound Bales of Cotton produced in the South, 1792–1920

1792	4,000
1800	73,222
1820	334,728
1840	1,347,640
1860	3,841,416
1880	6,356,998
1900	10,123,027
1920	13,437,603

Francis Cabot Lowell constructed a Power Loom from Memory and established the First Cloth Factory, 1814

Due to Whitney's invention, raw cotton was piling up in huge quantities. And nearly as fast as the cotton could be grown and shipped north, it was being carded and spun into yarn.

In the meantime the lack of power weaving looms was holding back the manufacture of yarn into cloth, for most of the weaving was still being done by hand, and the weavers could not keep pace with the growers and spinners.

New Englanders turned to England for plans and models. Americans went there to study the inventions in spite of the fact that English manufacturers and Parliament were still jealously guarding their weaving machines.

Several Americans succeeded in carrying home a knowledge of English power looms. One of these was Francis Cabot Lowell of Boston, Massachusetts, an uncle of one of the most famous American poets, James Russell Lowell. He was a prosperous merchant who had spent two years in England for his health, and while there he had carefully studied the English looms.

Lowell and his partner introduced the first commercially successful models in the United States. About 25 models had already been patented, but none was workable. Lowell predicted that when his looms were working, the price of cotton cloth, which was then 33 cents a yard, would drop to less than 10 cents.

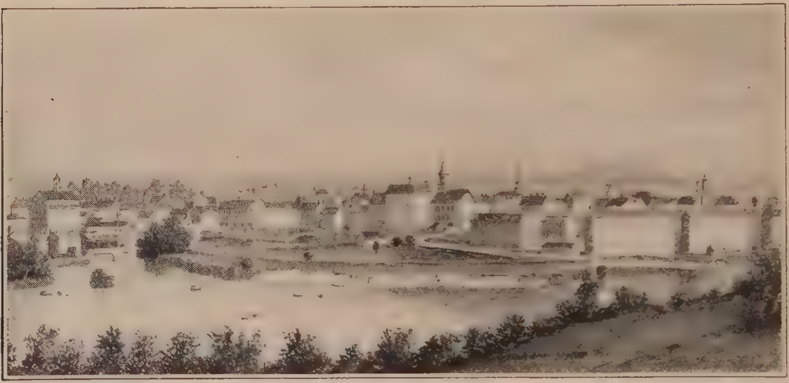

FIG. 159. Lowell in 1839

Interestingly enough, the backward public and other textile-manufacturers pronounced Lowell's scheme a "mad one" and "visionary and dangerous." Nevertheless, the mills which Lowell established at Waltham, Massachusetts, prospered, and a textile-manufacturing town named Lowell grew up, largely as a result of its namesake's efforts. There was an ever growing demand from the public for cheap machine-made cloth and yarn. In 1820 Lowell was a village of 400 people; in 1850, a city of nearly 35,000.

TEXTILE-MANUFACTURING DEVELOPED

The invention of the cotton gin and the opening of successful machine-operated textile mills in Massachusetts established the first great American industry. Cotton-manufacturing spread with magical rapidity; the increase in machines kept pace with the increase of cotton planting in the South.

Notice the rapid rise from 1831–1860 both in the amount of money invested and in the number of spindles and looms.

Slowly but surely machines took from the hands of the women the knitting of socks, mittens, mufflers, jackets, etc. In that period the first knit underwear was introduced to the public. People soon discovered that the garments were cheap and that they also fitted better than the home-knit ones. As a result the task of knitting underwear passed out of the home.

Increase in Money invested in American Cotton-Goods Manufacturing

1831	$40,000,000
1860	98,000,000

Increase in Number of Spindles in American Spinning Mills

1831	1,246,703
1860	5,235,727

Increase in Number of Looms in American Weaving Mills

1831	33,433
1860	126,313

Woolen mills were opened also, although at first these did not spread so rapidly as did the cotton mills. Soon more and more farmers in the Ohio and Mississippi valleys turned to sheep-raising. Merino sheep were imported from Spain and other kinds from Saxony and other parts of Germany. An increasing amount of fine wool was grown each year to be spun into yarn and woven into cloth. After 1812 the production of woolen yarns and cloth increased steadily.[1]

Of course hand weaving did not entirely disappear with the coming of machines. Skilled craftsmen in Pennsylvania and New Jersey continued to weave by hand, using machine-spun yarn and weaving it into fancy designs both in wool and in cotton.

Some Textile-Manufacturing spread into the South

Manufacturing was spreading much more rapidly throughout the North than elsewhere. New England and the Northeastern states were the chief centers, but there was a fairly large development going on in the South too.

Many of the Scotch-Irish, Huguenot (French), Swiss, and German immigrants who settled there had been masters of crafts.

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[1] The style of men's clothing changed about 1812 from knee breeches to long trousers, and so more material was needed.

Once the first years of clearing land and building shelter were behind them, these settlers began to think of some of the fine things that they had left in Europe, and many of the craftsmen set to work at their old trades — spinning and weaving cotton, wool, and flax on handmade spinning wheels and looms. The women dyed the cloth with indigo or with the juice of berries and roots which the Indians had taught them to use and wove handsome rag carpets, bed coverings, and colorful "bagdads."

Shortly after the Northern mills had begun to hum steadily, the Rocky Mount Cotton Mills were opened in Edgecombe County, North Carolina. Negroes worked in the mills, spinning coarse yarn for poor white people and slaves to use. There were 2000 spindles in these mills, and from 1200 to 1500 pounds of yarn were turned out daily. There was no regular market, however, and the business did not grow rapidly.

In 1830 a steam engine to run looms was introduced into the textile mills of Greensboro, North Carolina. The engine itself was an awe-inspiring device from Philadelphia. The mountaineers who had helped to carry it through the woods were very much impressed, and remarked to one another that times were certainly changing when machines like that could do their weaving for them.

But the cotton-cloth industry of the South was hampered greatly by poor management and grew very slowly. Goods were sold only to local consumers, and when the people of the community had all the cotton goods they needed, the mills closed. Furthermore, the untrained Negro workmen were not very dependable as tenders of machines.

SOUTHERN TEXTILE INDUSTRY, 1840–1860

Year	Number of Mills	Looms	Workmen	Capital	Bales of Cotton Woven
1840	25	700	1200	$995,300	7000
1860	39	800	1775	1,272,750	11,000

A comparison of the above table and that on page 393 shows how small was the South's share in the textile-manufacturing of the United States as late as 1860.

ELIAS HOWE CHANGED CLOTHING-MANUFACTURING BY INVENTING THE SEWING MACHINE, 1845

One day in 1845 a man sat in front of the Quincy Hall clothing factory in Boston. Beside him sat five expert seamstresses. He and they were sewing garments in a race with one another.

The crowd gasped as they saw the cloth run from under the man's fingers at the rate of 200 stitches a minute. The rapid seamstresses tried their best to keep up with him, but they could not take more than 30 stitches a minute. The man could sew more cloth than the five seamstresses together. His seams were straighter and the stitches more even. The crowd marveled.

FIG. 160. Elias Howe

What a queer situation! A man sewing in a race with women and defeating them so easily! How could he do it? This was the reason. The man had the one successful sewing machine in the country. The poor ladies, expert as they were, had only their nimble fingers to rely upon.

The triumphant male was Elias Howe, a mechanic in Ari Davis's "instrument," or machine, shop, at Cambridge.

Now, Howe was a very poor man. Constant worry about money had beset him for many years, and he was never too sure how he should be able to pay for the next meal for himself and his family.

One morning in 1839, as he was working in the instrument shop, he was pondering as usual about how he could make ends meet. An inventor called at the Davis shop and demonstrated a model of a knitting machine. Howe was sitting at work near by.

"Why do you bother with a knitting machine?" asked Davis. "Why don't you make a sewing machine?"

"I wish I could," replied his visitor, "but it can't be done."

"Oh, yes, it can," said Davis; "I can make a sewing machine myself."

"Well," responded his caller, "you do it, and you will have an independent fortune."

"An independent fortune for a sewing machine!" was the thought that flashed through Howe's mind as he listened to the conversation. "I may be the man to invent that very thing."

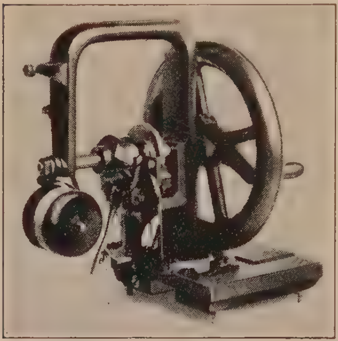

FIG. 161. Elias Howe's sewing machine

The idea stayed with him. Four years afterwards it began to take form. Howe lacked money to carry it out, but a neighbor who had inherited a fairly large sum of money came to his aid. He offered to use some of his new wealth to help his friend and lent Howe the money and allowed him to use his attic as a workshop.

For several months Howe worked at a lathe in his friend's attic. At last the model was finished. It ran smoothly and stitched evenly as Howe tried it out on suits of clothing for himself and his friend. Later he used it in his contest with the seamstresses and proved that the invention was a success.

There was much opposition to the sewing machines, and at first Howe could not sell his models, for tailors could not pay the cost of these new machines. There were no power-driven machines for making machine parts; so Howe had to make them by hand.

As time went on, the sewing machines which grew out of Howe's original model were greatly improved by other inventors. The best and strongest machine was turned out by Isaac M. Singer in 1851. Singer, who was a very shrewd business man as well as an inventor, worked out the plan of installment payments, which made it possible for even poor people to pay for machines. Singer sent his agents to the small towns of the country to demonstrate the machines, and as a result sales increased steadily, and the price of the machine dropped from year to year.

Thus the sewing machine completed the cycle of inventions in textiles. Men had then learned how to do by machine nearly everything connected with textiles, — ginning cotton, spinning yarn, weaving cloth, and sewing garments.

As a Result of the New Inventions the Ready-made Clothing Industry developed

Before Howe's time clothing was made by hand either in homes or in little tailoring shops. Every city and town and most villages had their skilled tailors and seamstresses, who cut and sewed clothing to their customers' orders.

Occasionally, however, people needed clothing in a hurry. There was, therefore, a small but steady demand for ready-made clothing.

In the 1830's a ready-to-wear clothing trade had developed between New York manufacturers and the Southern plantations. Many planters did not care to trouble about having clothing made for the slaves on the plantations and were glad to be able to buy it cheap and ready-made in New York. Many other people, including the California Forty-niners, became customers for ready-to-wear clothing. Even in the small port town of New Bedford, Massachusetts, it occurred to a merchant that it would be well to keep a supply of finished garments on hand, since sailors frequently entered his shop with a demand for a suit of clothing for immediate wear.

Thus the ready-to-wear garment trade began to develop. It was greatly handicapped, however, because the hand tailors and seamstresses could not turn out finished clothing fast enough. After Howe's success with the sewing machine the situation changed. The ready-to-wear clothing improved, and the industry grew larger and larger. New machine attachments were introduced. Sewing machines were devised to make buttonholes, to pleat, to hem, to embroider, to ruffle, and to do most of the things needed in plain or fancy sewing. Machines were perfected for handling heavy woolen and cotton materials as well as materials of lighter texture.

Thus another industry grew up in America, and more kinds of work were done by machine that were formerly done by hand.

MANY NEW INDUSTRIES WERE BOOMING IN THE NORTHEASTERN STATES

The old handicraft days were passing in the Northeastern part of the United States as machines were being invented and manufactured to do the work of human hands. At the same time ways of living were being transformed

Up and down the eastern seaboard people were working in an unending bustle of activity. You already know what was happening in transportation.[1] Roads were being built to connect the larger towns and cities. Three of the largest rival cities were making heroic efforts to dig their way through to the trade of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys and the Great Lakes.

Oliver Evans, John Fitch, James Rumsey, Robert Fulton, and many less famous inventors were trying to harness steam power and make it run boats. By 1825 steamboats had not only come into use in the country, but were driving flatboats from the rivers between the Atlantic and the Mississippi.

In the 1820's locomotive engines were being perfected, and the first railroad companies were laying tracks. During the 1830's and 1840's the lines crept up the Appalachian valleys and through the gaps, and before the middle of the century the Atlantic regions were connected with those of the Mississippi and Great Lakes by an unbroken steel web of track.

In the meantime pioneer inventors worked hard in crude little machine shops, designing and making new tools and queer mechanical contrivances. At the very time that the spindles, looms, and sewing machines were remaking the garment trade, workshops were turning out many kinds of tools and implements.

The gunmakers and the metal-workers of New England were among the first to develop these machine industries. Simeon North, a mechanic and gunmaker from Connecticut, in partnership with Eli Whitney, was said to be manufacturing "the best rifles which had ever been issued to any regiment in the world." Thomas Blanchard invented a lathe to make wooden gunstocks. Samuel Colt modeled the revolver which bears his name and which was carried during the 1840's by the frontiersmen of the Far

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[1] See Chapters XIV–XVI in *An Introduction to American Civilization.*

West and later by the United States army officers. Blanchard also invented a machine to stamp out tacks and built steam wagons and steamboats. The latter ran very well on the Connecticut River.

Many other new machines were already doing the work of skilled metal-workers in the New England machine shops.

The New Machines were "standardized"

About this time these metal-working inventors hit upon one of the most important ideas of modern industry, the idea of "standardizing" machines. Every machine of one type and all its parts were made exactly alike. A Singer Sewing Machine bought in New York was exactly like one bought in San Francisco, New Orleans, or anywhere else in the world. Furthermore, all the various parts of every Singer machine were exactly alike, so that if any part were to break down it could be immediately replaced by another exactly like the broken one.

Gradually machines of all kinds became standardized. Today almost every mechanical thing is standardized as to its size, its shape, and its material. Screws are made in standard sizes — so, too, are nuts, bolts, axles, engines, locks and keys, electric-light fixtures, windows, doorways, trunks, suitcases, typewriters, water faucets, automobiles, engines, locomotives, and a host of other mechanical things.

Articles of clothing are cut to regular sizes, ranging from those which fit very small, slender people to those for large, heavy people. Shoes, hats, shirts, underclothing, dresses, and suits which fit can be bought by merely stating the size. Hundreds of examples of standardization in nearly every physical aspect of life are about us on every hand.

Goodyear's Invention of the Process of Vulcanizing Rubber, 1844

Not only were men's minds planning how to make new tools, implements, and machines of metal, but every phase of industry was being studied by the "madmen of invention." One of the most interesting of these developments came in learning how to use rubber.

Should you believe when you think of the many, many uses which we make of rubber today that for more than 300 years after rubber was known to Europeans it was regarded merely as a curio?

The Indians of Central and South America had used rubber for no one knows how many centuries before America was discovered. They used it in many ways, but especially for ornaments and for parts of their dress. On Columbus's return from one of his voyages he told Queen Isabella that he had watched the Indians playing with a bouncing ball made of gum from a tree.

This and other unusual stories of rubber gum aroused much curiosity in Spain, but few thought of making practical use of it. People sometimes bought rubber ornaments, but, according to our records, it was not until 1731 that Europeans tried to find out about the trees from which rubber is made. In that year the French Academy of Sciences sent two explorers to find out something about the extraordinary gum, but no use was made of what they learned.

Until 1770 rubber was called by its native name, *caoutchouc* or *hévéa*. Priestley, the famous chemist, gave it the name by which we know it, rubber. He picked up a ball of the gum one day and discovered that it would erase pencil marks. He was so delighted with the idea that he cut up the ball into pieces and sent them to his friends. He called the pieces rubbers, since they rubbed out the marks.

Fifty years later New England merchantmen began to carry home from South American ports loads of rubber gum to weight their empty ships. When the ships reached Boston or other New England ports, the gum was dumped on the wharves.

About 1820 a Boston ship captain brought home as a gift to a friend a pair of gilded rubber shoes made by South American natives. Then another brought 500 pairs of these shoes and offered them for sale. The rubber shoes were very cheap, and in spite of their ugliness people began to wear them. After that time Boston merchants began to import rubber shoes regularly. Others bought up rubber and manufactured it into shoes.

From rubber shoes manufacturers turned to rubber garments. The first experiments were made in imitation of patent leather. Turpentine was mixed with lampblack and rubber and spread on cloth, making a bright waterproof surface. A promising business was started in Roxbury, Massachusetts. Soon there were branch shops in other cities. The rubber industry seemed well started.

It so happened, however, that the business was started in the cold winter season. To the surprise and horror of the companies which had invested their money, the coating on the garments melted away in the heat of summer. The smell of rubber from goods which had run together filled the Roxbury factory with such strong odors that the garments had to be taken out and buried. It was also found that in severely cold weather the rubber garments were as unsuccessful as in very hot weather. They froze and turned as brittle as glass and so stiff that they would stand alone.

FIG. 162. Charles Goodyear. (From a daguerreotype. Courtesy of the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company, Inc.)

It was evident that something better than turpentine and lampblack would be needed to make rubber a useful product. Charles Goodyear of Massachusetts became interested in the problem of how to make lasting rubber. For several years he struggled to find the right combination, trying all the materials he could secure. In 1839 he accidentally dropped some rubber mixed with sulphur upon a hot stove. He discovered that the heat had produced a change in the rubber which seemed to make it better suited to his purpose.

Goodyear coated a piece of heavy cloth and treated it before an open fireplace. But the drafty fireplace proved to be a poor substitute for the kind of fire which Goodyear wanted. Then he tried his wife's bread oven. Goodyear baked rubber for a long

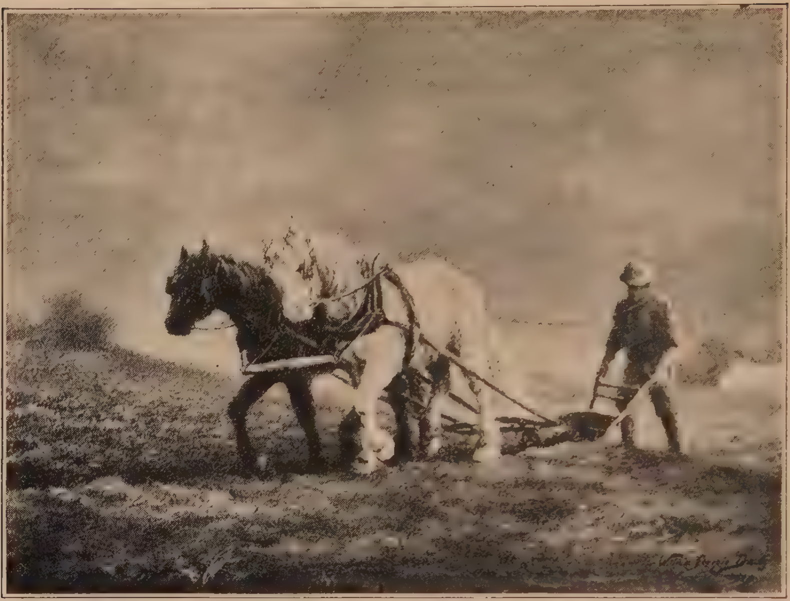

FIG. 163. Plowing by this method was a great improvement over that which had been done for thousands of years before. By the older method, the farmer pushed his wooden plow through the hard earth. By this method, horses or oxen pulled it. To the plow was fastened an iron cutting blade which cut the earth more easily than the wooden plows. But even with these improvements, plowing was a laborious, back-breaking task. (From a copyrighted painting by William Steeple Davis, Orient, Long Island, New York)

time. He tried baking it a short time. He tried charring it and cooling it. He tried curing it rapidly and curing it slowly. Many batches of rubber, like bakings of bread, were tenderly guarded and timed by the inventor until at length the secret was found. "Vulcanized" rubber was the result — rubber that would not melt in summer nor freeze in winter.

THE AGRICULTURAL REVOLUTION

During the very years when industry was changing from handicraft manufacturing to machine manufacturing, methods of producing food were also being transformed. A revolution was going on in agriculture.

Until about 1800 the food of the world was raised by hand with primitive farm implements. The soil was turned with great effort by crude wooden plows, harrows, and hoes. Seed was scattered broadcast by hand. Crops were reaped by hand with sickles, scythes, and cradles. They were threshed with flails or trodden out by the feet of men or the hoofs of animals. Harvests were gathered by hand rakes and loaded with pitchforks.

American farmers in the days of Abraham Lincoln's boyhood worked with tools much like those which the ancient Romans had used. In 1865, however, by the time of Lincoln's death, farming had been so changed by a flood of inventions that almost every step from sowing to harvesting could be done by machine. Thus between 1800 and 1850 occurred the beginnings of a great agricultural revolution. It was an important phase of the Industrial Revolution, which was sweeping over Europe and America.

1. The invention of plows and other cultivating machines

We have no idea who the clever farmer was who first thought of fastening a piece of sharpened iron to his wooden plow. Perhaps many farmers had pounded out such attachments at their own farm forges, but so far as we know Charles Newbold of New Jersey was the first American to be granted a patent on an iron plow (1797).

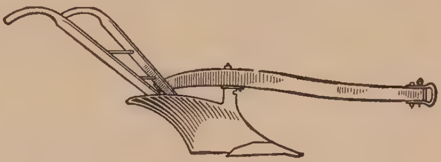

FIG. 164. Jethro Wood's first plow, patented 1819

Newbold's invention was used and improved upon by other farmers. A New York blacksmith named Jethro Wood patented an attachment by which the iron parts of the plow could be replaced when worn out. This was one of the first examples in the standardization of machines and implements for use in agriculture.

The inventive spirit even pervaded the frontier. In 1833 a Chicago blacksmith named John Lane and one of his neighbors used saw blades in making a steel plow.

During the 50 years before the Civil War there were many improvements on the plow. The inventions we have named were only a few which stand out. By 1855 no less than 372 patents had been granted by the government. In some cases steam engines were even attached to the plows. Factories for manufacturing plows were opened in the Eastern states. In 1845 Massachusetts alone had 73 factories, and these manufactured in that year 61,000 agricultural implements, most of which were plows.

In 1868 a historian named Flint stated in his book, *Eighty Years' Progress*, that the saving to the country from these improvements alone within the preceding 25 years had been estimated at no less than $10,000,000 a year in the work of teams and $1,000,000 in the cost of plows, while the aggregate of the crops had been increased by many millions of bushels.

In the meantime other farm implements were being improved. Harrows had previously been made of wooden bars with wooden teeth. In the 1840's and 1850's, however, new ones of iron with steel-pointed teeth were made. Large horse-drawn hoes were invented. Drills which bored holes in the ground and dropped the seeds evenly, replaced the slow, wasteful broadcast sowing by hand.

In the case of these machines, too, we see once more how slow people were to accept new ideas and new ways of doing things. At first farmers were suspicious of the new inventions and refused to use them. They even said that iron plows "poisoned the soil." Then, hesitatingly at first, they began to try them. To their surprise the iron ones worked much better than the wooden. Gradually they came into general use.

2. Harvesting machines

In the British Museum a little glass case contains the mummies of two Egyptian kings who lived beside the Nile. With them are a few farm utensils used in the days when the two kings walked the earth — a broken plow, a rusted sickle, two sticks tied together with a leather thong. Those were crude "bread tools" used in the Egyptian civilization 4000 years ago. In the 1700's in America the same kinds of crude implements were still the "bread tools" of most American farmers. In George Washington's Virginia home, Mount Vernon, are preserved sickles not unlike the reaping tools of farmers 4000 years ago when the Egyptian kings were entombed. You have already learned in *An Introduction to American Civilization* that Cyrus McCormick invented the first American reaper.

That was in 1831, but McCormick did not secure his patent on the reaper until three years later. Meanwhile in 1833 a Baltimore seaman named Obed Hussey was granted a reaper patent.

In the early McCormick reapers one can find the principles of the modern harvesting machine. There were revolving knives for cutting the grain, a reel to gather it, and a platform for receiving it. The driver of the machine also drove the horses. A man walked alongside the machine raking the grain off the platform and binding it by hand.

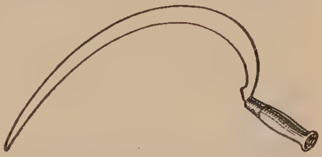

FIG. 165. The sickle was the only implement used for thousands of years for reaping grain

McCormick's work in making a successful reaper was aided greatly by the experiments of earlier inventors. Reaping machines had been made in Europe. In 1822 Henry Ogle invented a reaper in England. Farm laborers feared that they would be thrown out of work, and public opinion prevented him from manufacturing it. In 1826 the Reverend Patrick Bell, a Scotchman, combined the plans of earlier inventors and brought out a successful reaper, for which he was given a prize by the Scottish Agricultural Society. Some of the Bell reapers were brought to the United States, and it is quite probable that McCormick was acquainted with the machine. However, McCormick's reaper was better than Bell's reaper, and he deserves the credit he has received.

Other inventors were working on models of reaping machines, and each one added new ideas. One of the first improvements was a device that raked the grain as the knives cut it. Another was a seat for the raker. Another attachment bound the grain into bundles.

Throughout the 75 years which followed the invention of McCormick's reaper one improvement after another made the reaping machine more efficient. Perhaps the most important was the gasoline tractor, which was attached to the reaper and which propelled it, taking the place of horses.

We cannot tell all the steps by which the first harvesters became the efficient harvester-thresher of today. The story of the development of "bread tools" through 100 years takes us from the sickle to the harvester-thresher, which today cuts a twenty-foot swath of grain, harvests it, threshes it, and sacks it as the gasoline tractor moves across the field.

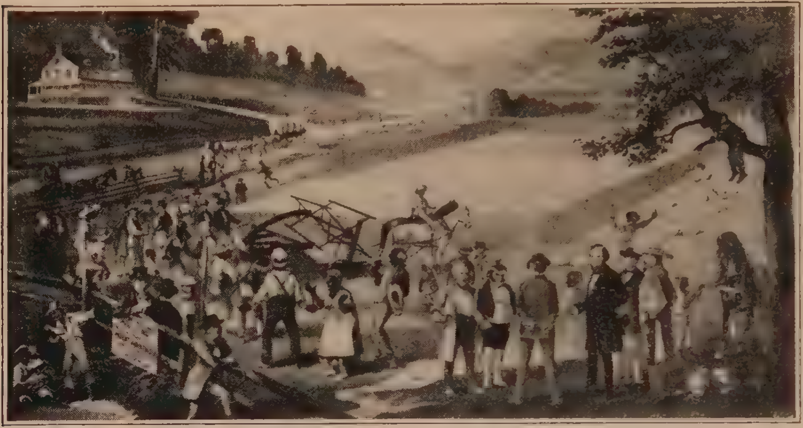

Fig. 166. Testing out the first McCormick reaper. (From a lithograph. Courtesy of the International Harvester Company of America)

The Advance of the Agricultural Revolution

At first farmers were indifferent to the success of the reaper. So far as we know McCormick sold no reapers for six years after the granting of his first patent. In 1840 two reapers were sold; in 1842, seven; in 1844, fifty. Then, in 1847, McCormick left his home in West Virginia and moved out to the broad prairies of Illinois, where in the small town of Chicago he started a factory. A year later he sold about 500 machines. Thenceforth the farmers of the Middle Western plains adopted more and more eagerly the harvesting machines for their huge fields.

In the table on page 408 we can see the advance of the agricultural revolution in the number of patents granted for agricultural inventions between 1789 and 1860.

Fig. 167. In 1837 John Deere, using an old saw blade, devised a lighter and stronger plow than any in use before that time. (Courtesy of Deere and Company)

Fig. 168. In 1831 Cyrus McCormick invented the first successful American reaping machine. (Courtesy of the International Harvester Company of America)

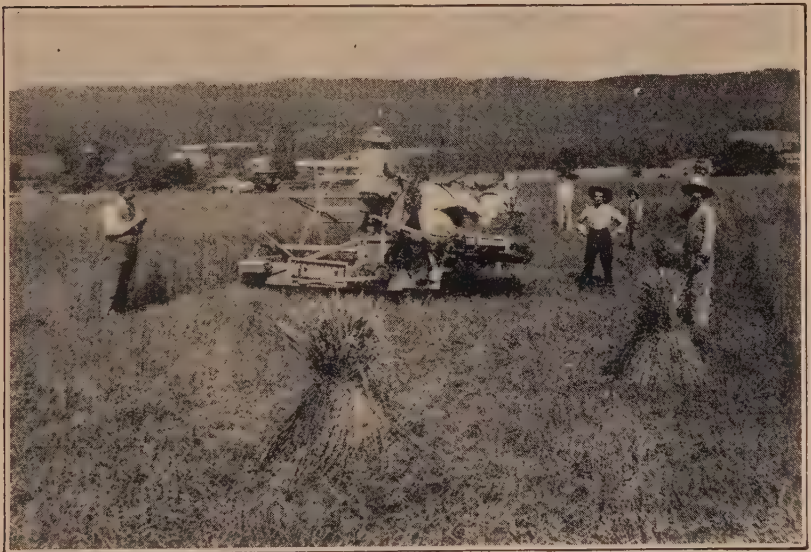

Fig. 169. The McCormick twine binder was an improvement over other devices which had employed wire instead of twine to bind the sheaves. (Courtesy of the International Harvester Company of America)

During the years in which scores of inventors were making farm machinery, agricultural societies, farm newspapers, and magazines helped to forward the agricultural revolution. County and state fairs were held throughout the country. Demonstrations of better ways of farming were given. Contests were held to awaken interest in invention in agriculture.

Approximate Average Number of Patents granted for Farming Machines, 1789–1860	
1789–1812	80
1812–1820	200
1820–1830	500
1860	5000

International expositions displayed the new machines and held competitions with one another. In 1855 at the Paris Exposition there were exciting races in cutting and threshing grain. One newspaper said of the American wheat thresher:

> This American machine literally devoured the sheaves of wheat. The eye cannot follow the work which is effected between the entrance of the sheaves and the end of the operation.

Revolutionary Inventions in the Iron-and-Steel Industry

After 1830 it was becoming more and more clear to American business men that the greatest need in industry was steel. Cheap steel! That was the demand of the railroad-builders, the machine-shop owners, and the firearms-manufacturers.

Inventions in agriculture, machine-manufacturing, and tool-making were multiplying. Railroad trains risked accidents daily as they felt their way across the continent over iron rails which wore out in two years. Inventors groped about for new mechanical contrivances, but everyone demanded cheap and durable steel in huge quantities.

As late as 1840 iron was expensive to make and of very poor quality. In *An Introduction to American Civilization* you have already read the story of the development of iron-and-steel manufacturing from its early stages. You saw that until 1846 steel was still being made as laboriously as in the Middle Ages. For one thing steel-making still depended upon wood as fuel, as it had in England in the early 1700's.

Before 1800, however, anthracite coal was discovered in the

United States and, after 1840, came into widespread use. The iron industry seemed to get a new start. Then the way was discovered to turn bituminous, or soft, coal into coke, and coke gradually replaced all other fuels in iron-making.

During the first half of the 1800's the iron business spread rapidly throughout the growing industrial zone. Pittsburgh in western Pennsylvania became its most important center. In 1803 an iron foundry was opened there. In 1829 Pittsburgh boasted eight rolling mills; by 1856 there were 25 steel-rolling mills in and near the city. Cities farther west, in Wisconsin, Illinois, Michigan, Indiana, and even Missouri, were manufacturing small quantities of iron.

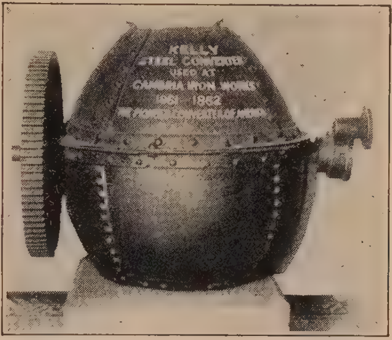

Fig. 170. The Kelly steel converter. (Courtesy of the Bethlehem Steel Company)

At that time there were no great corporations like the United States Steel Corporation of today. The ironworker ran his little business on a small scale. He bought and paid for the furnace and hired the men necessary to run it. Furnaces were very expensive, too, the better types costing about $50,000. Each produced only small quantities of iron, perhaps not more than 1000 tons of iron a year.

The iron industry was a risky enterprise, for the business of the country was still in an uncertain condition. An ironmaster never knew when his small profits were likely to be swept away and he would be plunged into debt.

Then in 1846 came the discovery of William Kelly, of which you read in *An Introduction to American Civilization.*

Seven years after Kelly had given a public demonstration of his "pneumatic process," Henry Bessemer invented a similar one in England. We do not know whether or not Bessemer had heard of Kelly's process. We do know, however, that the process had certainly become known in the American steel-manufacturing section.

Be that as it may, Bessemer met with as much opposition in England as Kelly had in the United States. At his first demonstration the air blast was so strong that it blew three quarters of the iron out of the converter, much to the delight of the onlookers. Later, when Bessemer read a paper about his work to the British Association, the steel-makers laughed loudly. The members of the association even voted not to mention the "silly" paper in the records of the meeting.

Fig. 171. Henry Bessemer

In the end, however, Bessemer triumphed as Kelly never had. He earned several million dollars from his steel invention and became a wealthy and famous man. It is said that Kelly received about $500,000.

Furthermore, the air process became known by Bessemer's name. Today Bessemer converters are known wherever steel is made in great quantities. Besides the invention of the air process there were more than 100 other inventions made by the practical genius of Bessemer.

Another steel inventor, whom we have been inclined to forget, was the Scotchman Robert F. Mushet. He added a very important idea to those of Kelly and Bessemer. In the devices used by Kelly and Bessemer blasts of air burned the impurities out of the iron ore. The process had to be stopped at just the right moment before all the carbon in the iron had been burned out. This was done because a certain amount of carbon is necessary in fine steel. But it was difficult to know just when to stop. Mushet asked himself the question "Instead of trying to stop the process at exactly the right moment, why not first burn out all the carbon and then put back the exact quantity that you need?" Then he tested his new idea and perfected a way of carrying it out. This was a great improvement over the old method. Since Mushet, many other inventors have helped to perfect the making of steel.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

1. The English Industrial Revolution

DARROW, FLOYD L. Masters of Science and Invention. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1923. See pages 41 to 57 for a brief discussion of the work of James Hargreaves, Richard Arkwright, Samuel Crompton, John Kay, and Edmund Cartwright, and pages 99 to 103 for James Watt.

MACDONALD, WILLIAM. Makers of Modern Agriculture. Macmillan & Company, Limited, London, 1913. Jethro Wood, Coke of Norfolk, and Arthur Young.

RUGG, HAROLD. Changing Civilizations in the Modern World. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1930.

THOMPSON, HOLLAND. The Age of Invention, Vol. XXXVII of The Chronicles of America series. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1921. James Watt, pp. 53–55.

2. Inventions in Textile Manufacture, and the Sewing Machine

FARIS, JOHN T. Makers of our History. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1917. Eli Whitney.

FORBES, W. C. The Romance of Business. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1921. See pages 52 to 78.

ILES, GEORGE. Leading American Inventors. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1912. Eli Whitney and Elias Howe.

MORRIS, CHARLES. Heroes of Progress in America. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1919. Eli Whitney and Elias Howe.

THOMPSON, HOLLAND. The Age of Invention, Vol. XXXVII of The Chronicles of America series. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1921. See the stories of Eli Whitney, Alan B. Wilson etc.

WILDMAN, EDWIN. Famous Leaders of Industry. First Series. The Page Company, Boston, 1920. Isaac Merritt Singer.

The Singer Sewing Machine Company, New York, has published several interesting pamphlets.

3. Iron and Steel Manufacture

DARROW, FLOYD L. The Boys' Own Book of Great Inventions. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1918.

WILDMAN, EDWIN. Famous Leaders of Industry. Second Series. The Page Company, Boston, 1920. Andrew Carnegie and Elbert H. Gary.

The Story of Steel. United States Steel Corporation, Bureau of Safety, Sanitation and Welfare, New York, 1917. Excellent pamphlet.

4. Rubber

A Wonder Book of Rubber. The B. F. Goodrich Rubber Company, The Sales Training Department, Akron, Ohio, 1917. Be sure to write for a copy of this pamphlet. It is the best single reference.

The Story of the Tire. The Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company, Akron, Ohio, 1919. An account of the manufacture of rubber; many interesting pictures.

UNIT VII

THE NORTHERN INDUSTRIAL ZONE VERSUS THE COTTON KINGDOM

THE NORTHERN INDUSTRIAL ZONE VERSUS THE COTTON KINGDOM

For 200 years the history of the American people was a history of the conflict of sections. Even in colonial times three rather distinctive sections formed: the southern section of tobacco, rice, and cotton planting; the northern section of handicraft, trade, shipping, and diversified farming; and the back country, a frontier stretching along the westward fringe of settlements, from Maine to Georgia. Geographic factors had helped to make ways of living in one section different from those in the others.

After the Revolution the country still continued to form into three fairly distinct sections: South, North, and Western frontier. In Unit VII we shall study the development of two of these, the Northern industrial zone of manufacturing and the Southern cotton kingdom.

In Chapter XVII we shall learn how the Northeastern states turned more and more to machine manufacturing, how cities and towns grew rapidly, and how more and more people made a living by making and selling things.

In Chapter XVIII we shall study the different development in the South. We shall see how a few thousand wealthy planters developed a great cotton kingdom, based on black-slave labor. Again we shall see how geography helped to bring about sharp differences between the two sections.

In Chapter XIX we shall note that at last these differences between the North and South brought a great civil war, and that that in turn brought about a new Industrial Revolution. More than any other single factor, the war between the Northern and Southern states started the great industrial expansion and the age of Big Business.

CHAPTER XVII

THE NORTHEASTERN STATES DEVELOPED INTO AN INDUSTRIAL ZONE OF CITIES AND TOWNS

The first half-century of our country's independent life saw remarkably swift changes in ways of living. Everything was changing — methods of producing food and clothing, of building homes and public buildings, of transporting people and their goods, of communicating, and of buying and selling. Even the amusements and the play life of the people were changing.

POPULATION WAS GROWING RAPIDLY

In 1790 there were about 4,000,000 people in the United States. In 1860 there were about 31,000,000. Thus in 70 years the population of the country doubled and doubled and nearly doubled again! It was an undreamed-of development!

There were several reasons for the astonishing growth of population. During the years of the westward movement most American families were large, commonly numbering eight to twelve people. Furthermore, as life became more settled, health conditions became better,— cities became more sanitary and medical men learned how to preserve life more efficiently,— so that the proportion of people who lived to old age became larger and larger.

Another reason for the increase in population was the tremendous immigration into the United States from Europe, especially after 1820. With the building of railroads, canals, roads, and factories, there came a demand for more and more laborers. Conditions in Europe were forcing many peasants out of their homes at the very time that America was offering golden opportunities, and into the Eastern seaports poured hordes of immigrants of many nations. The bar graph of figure 172 shows you that until 1860 the population of our country nearly doubled every twenty years. Compare the number of inhabitants in the United States in 1790 with the number in 1810. Notice how the population increased in the years 1810–1830 and 1830–1850.

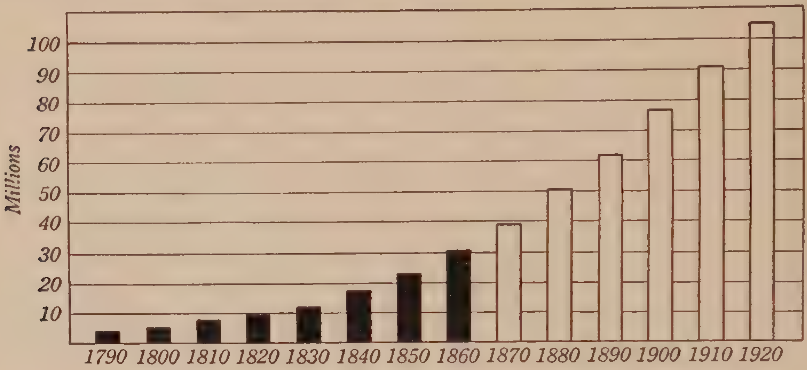

FIG. 172. Population of the United States, 1790–1920

The world had never known such a rapid growth of population as that which took place in the United States in these years.

CITIES AND TOWNS WERE GROWING RAPIDLY

Another change was occurring in the United States at that time. Not only was the general population nearly doubling every twenty years, but the proportion of people in the cities was more than doubling. From your study of *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World*, should you not expect that such a change would take place with the coming of the Industrial Revolution? The circle graph of figure 173 shows the percentage of people who were living in towns and living in cities.

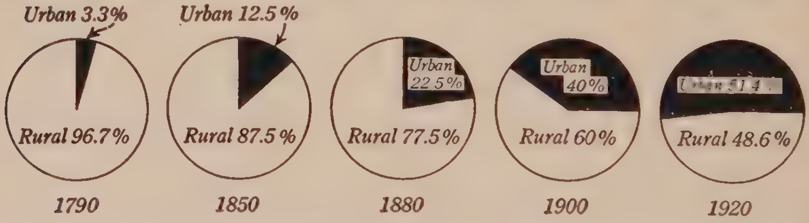

FIG. 173. The graph shows that in 130 years the percentage of American people living in cities increased from 3.3% to 51.4%

You have already read in *An Introduction to American Civilization* how three cities (Providence, Pittsburgh, and Schenectady) grew up in the industrial section.

Let us consider two or three other examples, to show more fully how communities were growing from coast to coast. On the eastern seaboard we shall have a fleeting glimpse of Boston and New York about 1860. Then we shall see what was happening in Chicago. As you read the accounts of these growing cities, try to imagine that to a certain extent the same things were happening in other towns and cities of the new industrial section, and that they were to happen again and again in other sections.

1. Boston

In 1783 Boston was little more than a large town. It was orderly and trim, more like an English town with hundreds of years of history behind it than like the crude frontier towns of the Western country. Many of the houses were charming dwellings. People were slowly breaking away from some of the narrow Puritan traditions, and were beginning to live a more gay and cultured life. Well-known artists were founding an American school of art. Wealth had accumulated there.

In 1850 Boston had become a city of 136,000 people and the largest trading center of New England. It carried on business with the thriving cities of Lynn, which was making shoes, Lowell, Lawrence, Fall River, and other textile-factory towns. It was still an important seaport and center of fisheries.

Although Boston began to fall behind New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and New Orleans in trade, it became the cultural center of the United States. The city had had a public library since 1653. In the early 1800's the new Boston library received many excellent collections of French books from Paris and gathered a store of rare and fine books from Spain and England.

Since 1780 Boston had also been the home of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. There also were to be found the Society of Natural History and the Massachusetts Historical Society. Across the Charles River, in Cambridge, was Harvard

College. Some of the best scholars of the United States and Europe spoke in the lecture courses given regularly at the Lowell Institute.

Not before 1794, however, did Boston have a theater. New York and Philadelphia had had fine dramatic performances long before that time. Boston lagged behind because the Puritan elders considered the theater wicked. By 1860, however, there were many amateur dramatic societies in and around Boston.

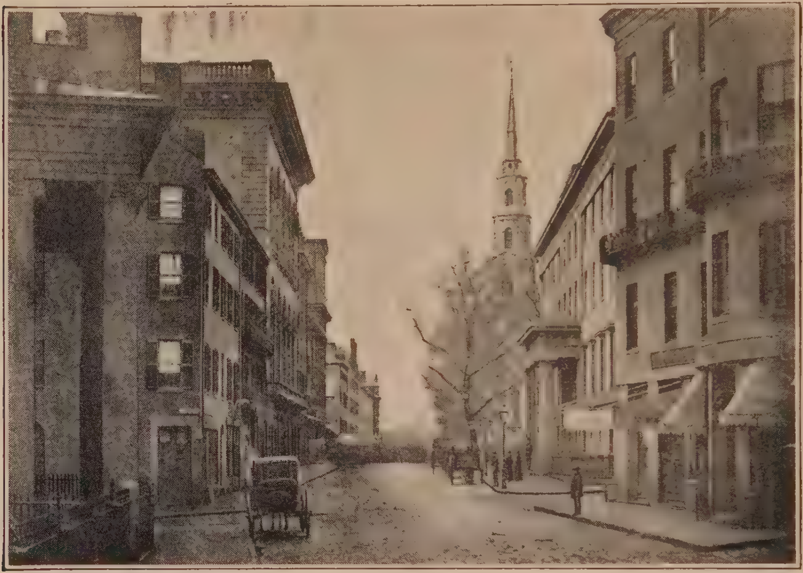

FIG. 174. A street in Boston in 1860

The standing of Boston among other American cities in literature was never questioned. Two magazines, the *Atlantic Monthly* and the *North American Review*, had been started there. Four daily newspapers were being issued by 1846. The poets Holmes, Longfellow, and Lowell were all living in or near Boston in 1860. Ralph Waldo Emerson and Henry Thoreau were writing essays which are world famous. Harriet Beecher Stowe was one of the many well-to-do literary people associated with Boston who had helped to rouse a storm of feeling over the whole country against slavery; her best-known contribution is *Uncle Tom's Cabin.*

2. New York City in 1860

Even in 1860 New York was a hustling American city, beginning to take on the character of the city that it is today. There were several foreign sections where Irish, Italian, Jewish, and German people lived by themselves, spoke their own languages, and kept their own customs.

In lower New York one of the most interesting sections was the Bowery, once a part of Peter Stuyvesant's farm.

> Here are the streets and the shops of the working classes, consisting of dry and fancy goods, cigar shops, lager-beer saloons, shoe stores, confectionery stores, pawnbrokers' shops, and ready-made clothing, plentifully besprinkled with variety and concert saloons and beer gardens. There are no elegant store fronts or marble stores here. The buildings are plain brick edifices, three or four stories in height, the upper stories occupied by the families of the merchants, or as tenement houses. The Germans visit the beer gardens with their wives and families, to listen to what is sometimes excellent music, and to drink beer. . . . One should visit the Bowery at night, when the workmen and shopgirls, having finished their daily labor, are out for recreation and amusement. Then he will gain an idea of one phase of city life and people which he would not obtain otherwise.[1]

Near the Bowery was a section called Five Points, where thieves, burglars, and other low characters were already swarming into tenements.

Near the wharves carriages rattled and bounced over muddy pavements, winding through narrow streets fringed with low, unpainted wooden houses. Some of these were saloons, billiard halls, and oyster bars.

Broadway was a wide street with very tall houses, blazing with lights from shop windows. Crowds thronged the streets. Well-dressed ladies swept the sidewalks with their long, full skirts. Here and there was an ugly building of stucco and brick, a Broadway hotel. These structures were the pride of the city. Higher and higher hotels — even then they were the ideal of most New York builders. Along the street were churches, restaurants, saloons, private houses, shops, and concert halls. Out of and into these poured an unending throng of people who were of every race and nationality under the sun.

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[1] Adapted from Captain Willard Glazier's *Peculiarities of American Cities* (Hubbard Brothers, Philadelphia, 1886), pp. 305–307.

What a cruel, hustling American city New York was then! Political "rings" and "bosses" controlled its government even in 1860. Captains of industry were managing Wall Street. William B. Astor was rapidly increasing the huge fortune left him by his father, who had grown rich on Oregon fur-trading. A. T. Stewart too had made a fortune out of his dry-goods store.

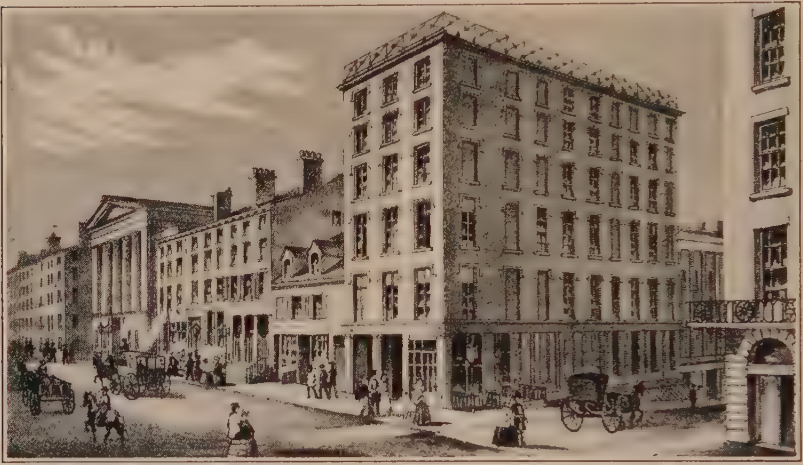


FIG. 175. A view of Broadway, New York, in 1856. Notice the unusual height of the building on the corner,— unusual for those days

Fifth Avenue, then called the most splendid avenue in America, was very different from the commercial city surrounding it. Only elegant rubber-tired carriages passed over its expensive pavement. The aristocrats of the city delighted to drive their smart "pairs" up the avenue to the Crystal Palace, which had been opened in 1853 at 42d Street. Still farther north they might stop to see how the work on St. Patrick's Cathedral, the "finest church in America," was progressing.

Next to Fifth Avenue in aristocracy was Second Avenue. Not many years before 1850 it had been the home of the old Dutch aristocracy, and near Stuyvesant Square some of them still kept up their beautiful homes during the 1860's.

The city was built as far north as Central Park. It was more like several small towns scattered over the island, however. Country homes on high and rolling land separated such villages as Harlem, Bloomingdale, Manhattanville, Carmansville, and Washington Heights.

This, then, was the growing metropolis of New York in 1860. Vast changes had taken place since 1626 when Peter Minuit traded with the Indians a few trinkets for the island of Manhattan.

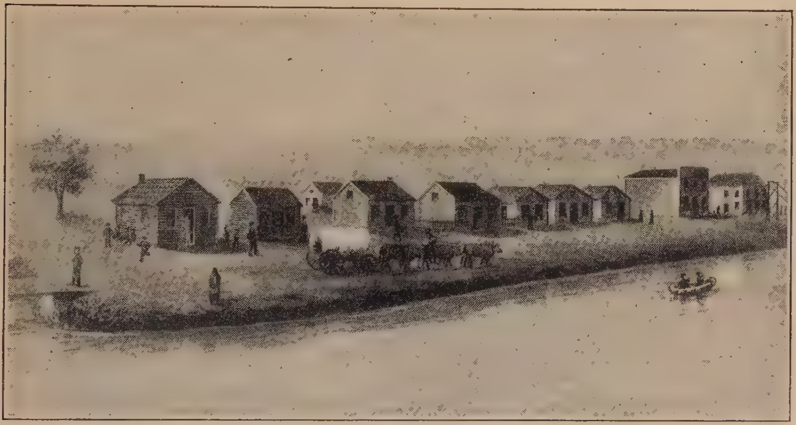


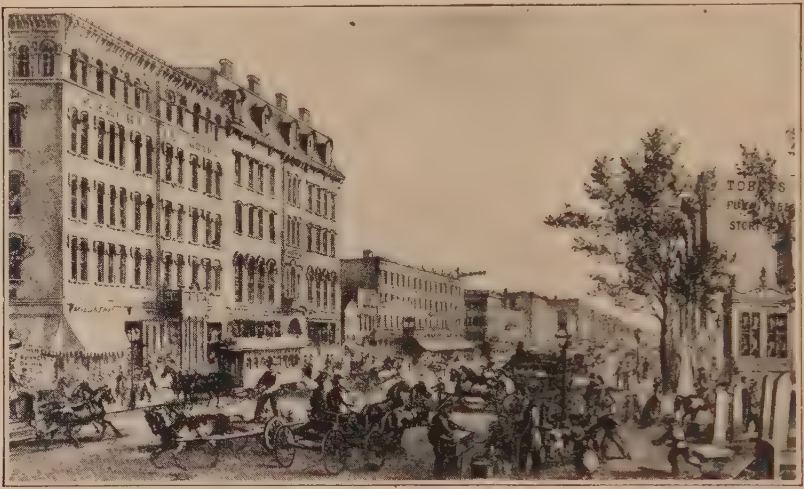
Fig. 176. In 1834 Chicago was still a small straggling settlement. (Courtesy of the Chicago Historical Society)

3. How Chicago grew upon a swamp on the southern shore of Lake Michigan

In 1674 on a small river near the southern end of Lake Michigan where the mighty city of Chicago now stands, there was only a tiny cabin built by the French explorer Father Marquette. For 130 years from that time the region was held by the Indians and the French. Then in 1804 an Indian trader, John Kinzie, settled there. Fort Dearborn, which garrisoned 50 soldiers, had been built the previous year by United States troops.

Even by 1818 only two white families had made their homes upon the flat near the fort. By 1832, however, the huddle of poor cabins had grown to a town of 600. Already there were 50 families there, although six years before an army officer had written that it was a miserable spot, "affording no inducements to the settler, the whole amount of trade on the lake not exceeding the cargoes of five or six schooners, even at the time when the garrison received its supplies from the Mackinac."

As farms grew in Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin trade developed, and in 1838 wheat was first shipped from the port. In 1842 the shipment was 600,000 bushels. In 1839 cattle-shipping began. Steadily Chicago became the open door to Eastern trade through the Great Lakes, and to Southwestern trade by means of a canal and the Illinois and Mississippi rivers.



© Chicago Historical Society

Fig. 177. An important thoroughfare in Chicago in 1865. Notice the great change which took place in about 30 years. (See figure 176)

> In 1849 the first railroad had approached within ten miles of the city. In 1852 direct communication with the East was gained by the completion of the Michigan Central and Michigan Southern railroads, while more than one Western railroad was projected, and some of them were in actual progress of construction. . . . In 1857 there were living beside the still stagnant waters of the Chicago River one hundred thousand people.[1]

Thus in less than a half-century did fortunate location for trade transform a mud flat into a great, prosperous, growing city.

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[1] Captain Willard Glazier, *Peculiarities of American Cities*, p. 162. Hubbard Brothers, Philadelphia, 1886.

These — Boston, New York, and Chicago — are but three of the larger cities growing up in the Northeastern industrial zone.

Detroit also was becoming a very important lake port. Shipping and boat-building were carried on there. In 1859 there were nine steam sawmills in the city, sawing 40,000,000 feet of lumber a year. Two miles outside the city there were also works for smelting copper ore. It was a beautifully located and very attractive city.

On the Atlantic seacoast every harbor was busy; Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Charleston had become very large seaports, and also manufacturing and trading cities. New Orleans was the great port of the Gulf section and the southern Mississippi Valley. On the Pacific coast San Francisco, Seattle, and Portland were becoming trade centers.

These were not all, however. In order really to understand the changing life of America you must imagine hundreds of villages growing into trading and factory towns and scores of towns becoming thriving cities.

And it was the northeastern section of our country that was becoming the center of city and town growth, and the secret of it was — *manufacturing!*

MANUFACTURING AND CITY POPULATIONS GREW TOGETHER

Did manufacturing bring about cities, or did cities bring about manufacturing? What do you think?

To answer the question recall how the textile factories, the shoe factories, the iron mills, and the arms factories began. After machines had been invented, were they installed in the homes of workers in 1820, 1840, or 1860? No, indeed, and for two very good reasons: first, power was necessary to run the machines and the people had no way of sending power from house to house; second, the individual craftsmen had no money with which to buy and set up large machines and the engines needed to run them.

So it was that the expensive spinning machines, power looms, tool-making machines, engines and locomotives, reapers, threshers, steel-converters — all had to be built in huge factories, where abundant power could be developed. Thus the Industrial Revolution took the workers out of their homes and sent them into factories.

When the first textile mills were opened in New England, one of the most important problems was to find places in which the workers might live. The homes of most of them were in the country several miles away from the factory. There were no suburban trains, no subways, no electric trolleys, no bus lines, and no automobiles to carry the workers rapidly to and from the factories. So the mill-owners decided to build large boarding houses near the mills.

Thus a town and later a small city gradually grew up near every large factory. Many people who were not factory workers moved into the community to trade with the workers or care for them in some way. Near where the workers lived stores were opened, and food, household equipment, clothing, newspapers, tobacco, and other necessities were sold to them in these stores.

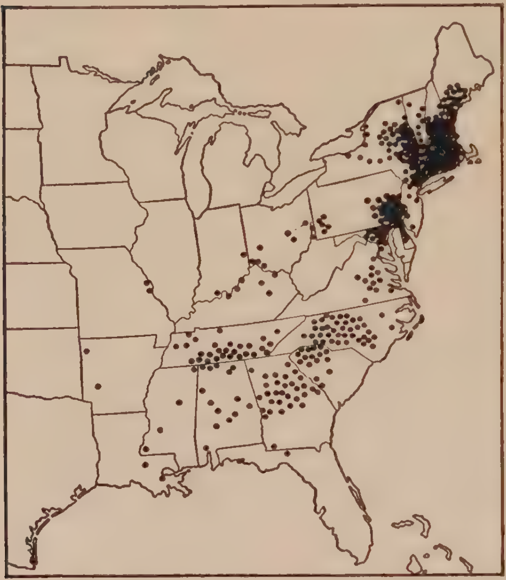

FIG. 178. Cotton mills in 1860

Before long, streets were laid out near the factory. Sidewalks were built, and water and sewerage systems were dug. As years went by the neighborhood became more and more citylike: churches appeared, schools were opened, theaters gave regular performances, paved streets were laid, and the streets were lighted.

As railroads spread across the country they not only joined the cities and towns which already existed, but they also gave life to new cities. With the railroad it was possible to ship raw materials and manufactured goods — food, fuel, and supplies — more rapidly and easily, and this rapidity and ease of transportation gave new life to trade. Telegraph lines were built and it became easier for towns and cities to keep in touch with one another.

People who had saved money began to invest it in manufacturing enterprises. As each new factory was opened new workers flocked into the centers of population.

Thus it was inevitable that factories should come as machines replaced handicrafts, and as factories were built cities naturally spread out about them.

What do you think now? Did the cities bring about manufacturing or did manufacturing bring about cities?

WHY THE INDUSTRIAL ZONE DEVELOPED WHERE IT DID: THE GEOGRAPHIC FACTORS

The maps of figures 178, 179, and 181 show clearly that most of the manufacturing was being carried on north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi River. Cotton mills dotted the communities of New England. Only occasional ones were found south of New York or west of the Appalachians. The woolen factories were also concentrated mostly in New England and New York State. A few were established as far west as eastern Iowa, but the great majority were north and east of Pennsylvania. As for the iron furnaces, most of those were in Pennsylvania or near by, although there were a few in western New England, a few small ones in New York State, and a few along the Ohio River. But Pennsylvania was the great iron-manufacturing state.

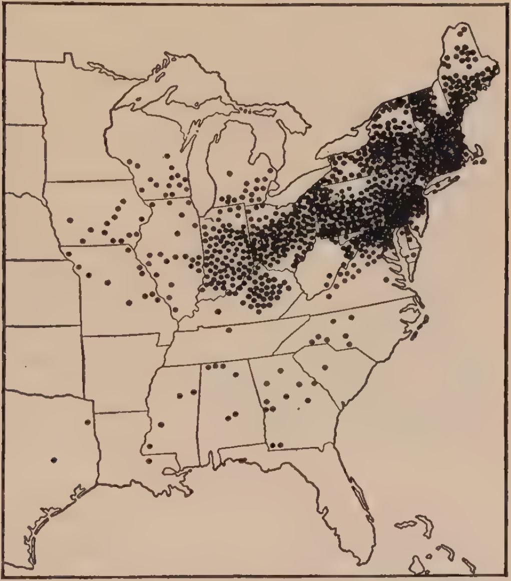

FIG. 179. Woolen mills in 1860

Were no factories or mills being established south and west of this industrial section? Yes, some were being built here and there in the Carolinas, Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and there were others on the Pacific coast; but with few exceptions they were small and far apart.

Why did these industries develop in these particular places? If we examine the geographic factors of these regions, our questions will be promptly answered. There were many reasons, to be sure, but six stand out as of greatest importance.

The first reason: excellent water power in the Northeastern section

In the early period of manufacturing, from 1800 to 1830 or 1840, most of the factories were run by water power, and therefore it was necessary to build factories beside streams where the force of running water could be used to turn water wheels. The development of cotton and woolen manufacturing in New England owes much to the water wheel.

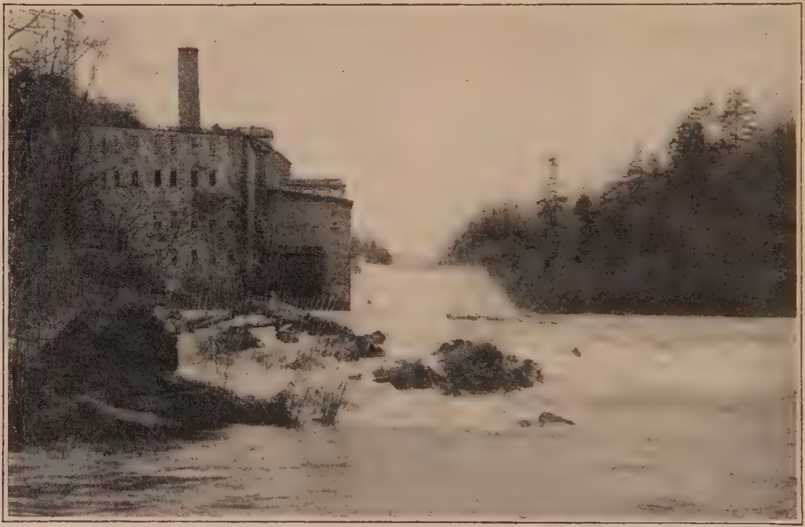

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FIG. 180. An old carpet mill in the northeastern section run by water power

Turn back to the relief map of figure 113. Compare the level plains of the Ohio and Mississippi valleys with the rugged mountainous states of New England, and with New York and Pennsylvania. If you ride through these last-named regions, you will see many swiftly flowing streams and perhaps today many factories built beside them. Even in these days of steam power that is frequently done. But in the days before the steam engine was widely used, water power was more necessary, and in this hilly country the swift rivers and waterfalls were at hand, ready to be harnessed to water wheels.

The second reason: great deposits of coal in the Northeastern states supplied cheap fuel for factory engines

Strangely enough, the wonderful coal fields of the Appalachian region were not discovered until nearly 200 years after Columbus landed in America. For years people unknowingly traveled over the rich coal fields of Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Ohio, and Indiana. Some of them had even built their homes at the foot of hills which contained a treasure in coal.

Not until 1679, when a small coal bed was found on the Illinois River at a town called Ottawa, was it suspected that there was coal in the region. And it was nearly 100 years later before the mining of coal was carried on to any extent. By another freak of fortune the bed near Richmond, Virginia, one of the smallest and poorest coal beds in the United States, was the first opened. That was in 1789, and coal from Richmond was shipped to the North.

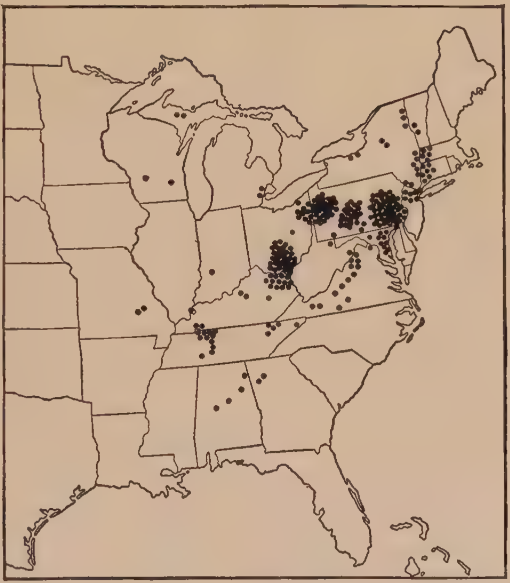

FIG. 181. Where iron products were being manufactured in 1860 (see page 430)

In the meantime, however, in 1762, a rich vein of soft coal had been found at Pittsburgh. Two years later anthracite was found by flatboat men, at Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania. These men, walking back from New Orleans, reported that they had found coal in Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. Then, little by little, men learned that a valuable field of coal lay in the mountains all the way from Pennsylvania to Alabama.

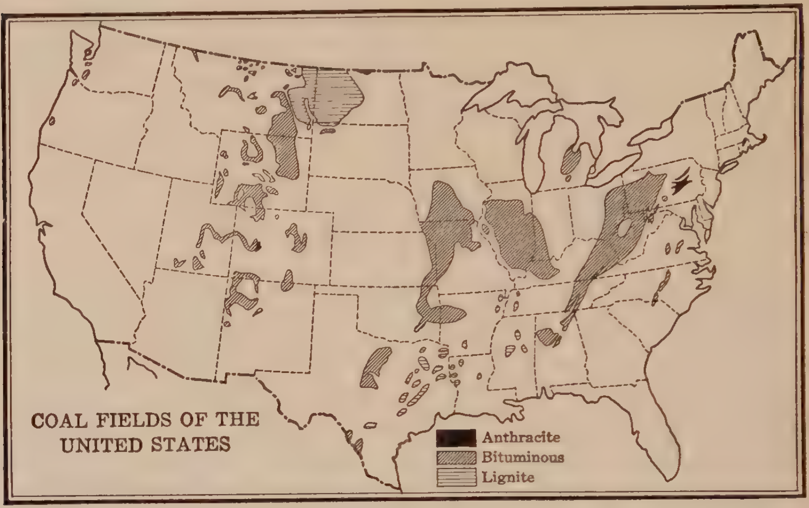

Fig. 182

Notice from the map of figure 182 that there are also important soft-coal (bituminous) deposits in Iowa and Missouri. Large areas of soft coal stretch over several other states. In 1860, however, these regions were just being opened, for at that time there were only a few iron furnaces west of the Mississippi.

Thus we have seen the importance of power in developing manufacturing. The industrial section grew up in the Northeastern states largely because of water power in the hilly and mountainous country, and coal power in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and the near-by region.

But there were other reasons, as we shall see in a moment.

At the end of this period a new source of power was found in the Northeastern states — oil!

Compare figures 182 and 183. Notice how close to the coal fields lay the underground lakes of oil.

In *An Introduction to American Civilization* you read the story of the discovery of petroleum and the growth of the oil industry.

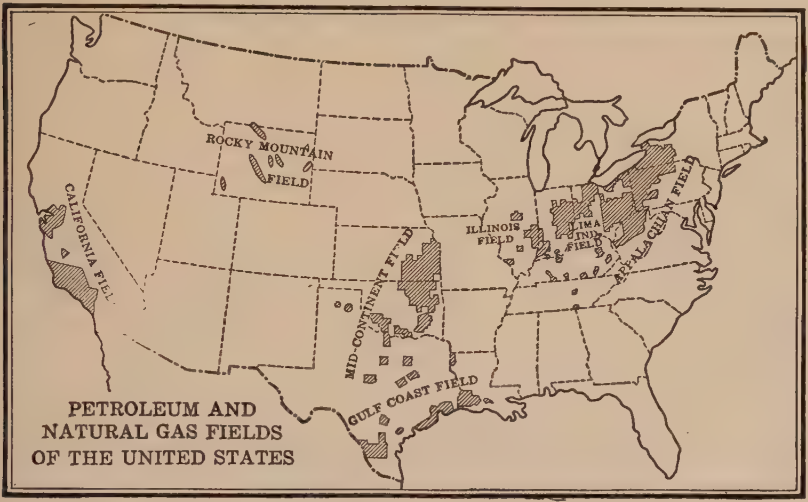
ROCKY MOUNTAIN FIELD
CALIFORNIA FIELD
ILLINOIS FIELD
LIMA IND. FIELD
APPALACHIAN FIELD
MID-CONTINENT FIELD
GULF COAST FIELD
PETROLEUM AND
NATURAL GAS FIELDS
OF THE UNITED STATES

FIG. 183

The discovery and growing use of oil became another important reason for the development of cities and manufacturing in the Northeastern states. In 1860, however, the real importance of oil as a source of power was still unguessed.

The third reason: Rich deposits of iron were found near Lake Superior

Manufacturing requires huge supplies of raw materials. To make reapers and threshers there must be iron, wood, coal, and many other things. To build machines for spinning and weaving cloth there must be plenty of iron and other raw materials. To build rotary printing presses iron is needed. Locomotives, cars, rails, and other parts of the railroad could not be made without iron.

Iron is perhaps the most important single raw material needed in industry. Without it the Industrial Revolution could never have taken place.

There was iron in the United States, great quantities of it, and most of it was in the Northeastern states. Since early colonial days Americans had known of small deposits of iron in various parts of the Atlantic coastal plain. As the western pioneers staked out homesteads in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Ohio, iron was found in each new region. Small iron furnaces were established near the mines, and coal found near by or charcoal made from timber was used for fuel.

Thus from 1790 to 1860 there was always abundant iron for the small needs of manufacturing, and its location helped to develop manufacturing and industry in the Northeastern industrial zone. However the real growth in the iron industry did not come until after the discovery of the great deposits in the Mesabi Range in Minnesota (see *An Introduction to American Civilization*, pp. 164–166).

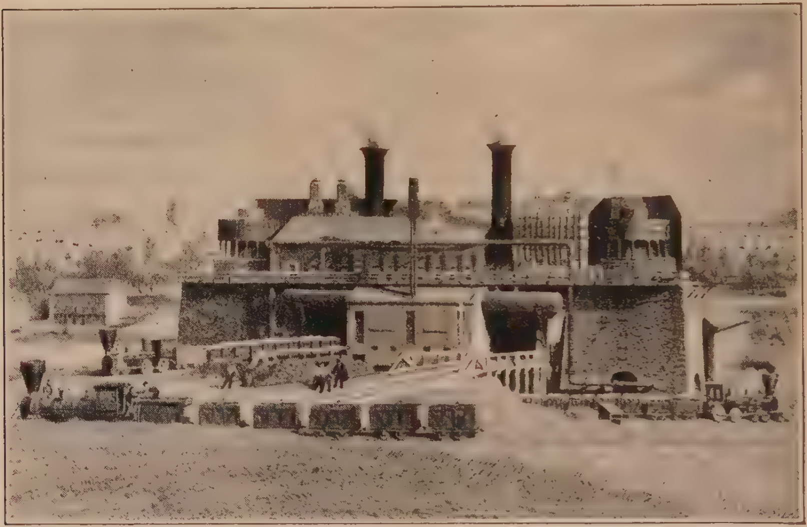

FIG. 184. The first iron works in the Mesabi Range. (From an old lithograph)

Eastern men of wealth staked out claims to the rich Mesabi district, and not many years passed before miners were shoveling the ore into wagons, hauling it to the lake shores, and shipping it to the coal fields. Within a few years steel towns arose along the Great Lakes from Chicago to Buffalo.

Thus the third geographic factor in the development of the Northeastern industrial section was large deposits of iron ore.

The fourth reason: The people of the Northeastern states had capital to invest in manufacturing

Factory buildings, machinery, and raw materials, as well as the wages of factory workers, required large amounts of money. And it was in the Northeastern states that most of the capital of the country was to be found.

In the coast towns of New England lived shipowners and merchants who had made fortunes from the sea. Many of those men were willing to invest their savings in the new factories. Others formed partnerships with skilled mechanics and opened factories of their own. Some of the businesses which were undertaken by former shipowners developed into large manufacturing concerns. Leading Boston merchants like the Lowells and the Appletons invested in factories. The same thing was happening in New York, Philadelphia, and other Eastern cities and towns.

Thus in the Northeast an earlier start in business had been made, and there was free capital ready to be invested in industrial enterprises.

The fifth reason: The shipping business was declining and shipowners were taking up manufacturing

We have already learned that shipbuilding and seafaring had long been one of the most profitable occupations of the people in the coast towns of New England. During the later 1700's many merchants had made fortunes in that way, especially in the slave trade and the trade with China.

The ocean trade of the colonies was greatly damaged by the Revolutionary War. In 1789 American merchants and shipbuilders owned only 124,000 tons of shipping. Then came a great revival of trade. By 1800 American ships totaled 1,000,000 tons. Profits became very large. Between 1795 and 1801 the profits on ocean freight alone averaged $32,000,000 a year. The infant sea power was growing rapidly. The new country was manufacturing many products at home and carrying on a flourishing trade with the world outside.

Shortly afterward, however, came hard times for the American merchant marine. France and England were at war and western

Europe was in a turmoil. Warships of both England and France seized neutral merchantmen, including American vessels. The American government tried to make treaties with the warring nations so that our vessels might go their way unhindered, but matters went from bad to worse. Several times the government was nearly forced into war with one or both of the warring countries.

At length the United States was drawn into the conflict against England. In the next volume of this history you will read about the war that followed — the War of 1812. During this war most of the ocean trade of the United States was wiped out, and it became practically impossible for American shippers to buy foreign goods or to sell American goods abroad. As the imports were cut off there rose a greater demand for domestic manufactures. Many shipowners saw the profits to be made from this new demand for American goods, and some of them forsook shipping for manufacturing.

At the close of the war the New England shipowners and sea captains found that it was very difficult to rebuild their trade with Europe. More of them turned to manufacturing as a means of making money. During their years of trading they had laid by considerable savings, and now many of them invested in manufacturing businesses in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island.

Shipping declined steadily until after 1830. It is certain, however, that this decline aided the Northeastern states in becoming industrialized as many people turned to manufacturing rather than to seafaring for their livelihood.

The sixth reason: During 200 years of our history the Northern people had become accustomed to handicraft

By the time the new machines were invented and factories had sprung up, these Northern people had had nearly 200 years of history. During much of that time many of them had earned their livelihood by various kinds of handicraft. Every community boasted its weavers, spinners, tailors, shoemakers, carpenters, ironworkers, and other craftsmen.

When the factories were started these people turned easily to manufacturing and to buying and selling goods. Agriculture did not mean so much to them as to the farmers of the Southern states or to the pioneer settlers on the rich Middle Western plains.

Thus even before 1860 several factors helped to turn the states north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi into an industrial section. First, excellent water power; second, great deposits of coal and oil; third, rich deposits of iron; fourth, capital ready for investment; fifth, the decline of the shipping business; sixth, the tradition of handicraft and trade.

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CHAPTER XVIII

THE SOUTHERN STATES BECAME THE COTTON KINGDOM

The Early Southern Tobacco-Planters had wasted the Soil

Since early colonial days most Southerners had made their living by agriculture. The first settlers in Virginia had found a virgin soil, ideal for tobacco-growing, and from that time to 1800 most small farmers, as well as owners of large estates, became tobacco-planters. Until after the War of the Revolution the Southern colonies exported tobacco to England in great quantities. Rice, sugar cane, and indigo were also cultivated, but tobacco was the chief crop until after Eli Whitney invented the cotton gin.

The tobacco-planters, however, soon wore out this rich soil by spendthrift ways of farming. For several years in succession they used the same patch, and it yielded them a splendid crop, but after four or five years the soil became so exhausted that it had to be abandoned. Then another patch of forest had to be cleared for another five-year crop. This wasteful system brought the planters great profit as long as virgin soil remained, but once it was gone they had to move on to fresh soil.

So during the 1600's and 1700's the planters of Virginia and the Carolinas moved from one tract of fresh land to another. They rarely restored anything to the earth which had yielded so abundantly to them.

By 1800 many of the farms and great estates of the Old South were exhausted. The children of the early planters were paying the price of the careless methods of their fathers. Many had to mortgage their plantations. Some of the old aristocratic families tried hard to remain in their old homes and keep their property together, but even the estates of Jefferson, Randolph, and Madison had to be sold. Many of the landowners worked hard to try to bring back the lost fertility of their estates, but others did not even try to nurse the soil back to richness, for it was much easier to move to virgin soil across the mountains.

We have already seen in Chapter XII how many of the plantation-owners of Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia moved westward into the lower Gulf states after 1800. For twenty years after that date the population of Virginia and the Carolinas increased at a much slower rate than during former years.

IN THE LOWER SOUTH ROSE (1800–1860) THE COTTON KINGDOM

The planters who moved into the Gulf states found there a rich virgin soil, most of which was fairly well forested. The climate was warm, with the temperature ranging from 50 to 90 degrees the year round. Two, sometimes even three, crops could be raised in one year. The pine forests supplied huge quantities of timber. The hill section yielded abundant supplies of grain. What a cotton kingdom could be founded in such a climate, with such natural resources!

And the cotton kingdom it did become!

People began to pour into this new region of wealth. By 1860, within a little more than a half-century, there were nearly 12,000,000 people in the cotton belt, of whom about 4,000,000 were Negro slaves, and about 250,000 free Negroes.

Slavery was growing rapidly in this cotton kingdom of the lower South. Eli Whitney's cotton gin had increased greatly the amount of cotton that could be cleaned and shipped northward to feed the textile mills. Hundreds of slaves who were now released from the labor of cleaning cotton, were put to work cultivating more cotton in the fields. As more and more land was cleared and planted, more and more hands were needed in the fields.

The cotton gin not only increased the production of cotton, but at the same time it helped to send higher the cost of slaves. Compare the following two tables, which show the increase in the production of cotton and the corresponding increase in the cost of slaves:

BALES OF COTTON PRODUCED, 1792–1800

1792	4,000
1800	73,222
1820	334,728
1840	1,347,640
1860	3,841,416

AVERAGE ESTIMATED COST OF ONE GOOD SLAVE, 1798–1859

1798	$350
1822	850
1830	650
1840	1000
1859	1300

The cotton belt itself ran from the Carolinas through Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and out into Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri. It extended northward also up into the state of Tennessee. (See figure 186.) The belt varied in width from about 200 miles on the coast to 600 or 700 miles farther inland. In 1850 as many as 400,000 square miles were planted in cotton.

The plantation-owners who had left their homes in the Old South in search of large profits from the cotton crops, found their hopes not in vain. In 1860 the cotton states exported nearly $192,000,000 worth of raw cotton. At the same time they exported $23,250,000 worth of raw tobacco and rice. The total exports from the entire country that year came to $316,000,000. Thus the cotton belt with its $215,250,000 worth of exports led the North. The wealth and power of the planter grew.

Two Classes of White People — Rich Planters and Small Farmers

In 1850 the cotton kingdom was ruled by a small group of wealthy slave-owning planters. In a population of 667,000 families, 1000 wealthy families received nearly half the total income! Their share of the total income of the South was $50,000,000. The share of the other 666,000 families was $60,000,000.

In addition, the wealthy planters owned most of the Negro slaves, who made plantation life possible. One writer said:

> The number of the very wealthy is, of course, small . . . the chief part of the wealth of these consists in slaves. It may be disputed (not, however, with confidence), from the census of 1850, that about half the slaves of Louisiana and one-third those of Mississippi and Arkansas, belong to estates of not less than fifty slaves each, and of these, I believe, nine-tenths live on plantations which their owners reside upon, if at all, but transiently.

MOST OF THE SOUTHERN WHITE PEOPLE IN 1860 WERE SMALL FARMERS

The small farmers made up the great majority of the white people of the South. They were scattered through every county — from the mountain regions of the lower Appalachians to the barren plains of Florida and the sandy ridges of Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas. Among them there was every degree of poverty. The richest of them were wealthy enough to own a few slaves and to lead a fairly comfortable, hard-working life. The poorest were indescribably miserable. A traveler reports the words of one such farmer:

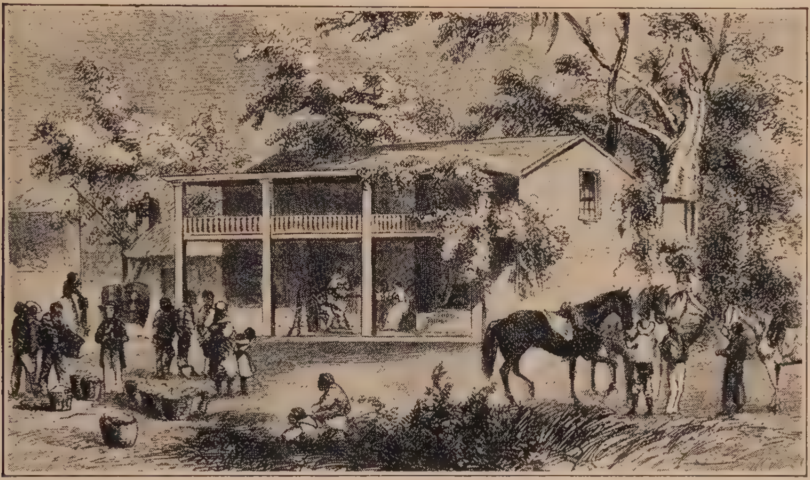

FIG. 185. A cotton-planter's home before the Civil War. (From Ballou's *Pictorial Drawing-Room Companion*, April 19, 1856)

> We are all poor folks here; don't hardly make enough to keep us in liquor. Anybody can raise as much corn and hogs on the mountains as he'll want to live on, but there ain't no rich people here. Nobody's got any black ones — only three or four; no one's got fifty or a hundred, like as they have down in the East [that is, the Southeastern states].

In every county there were a few great plantations and many, many small farms. There were few villages and towns, and there was little trade going on. The bustle of the Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois towns was missing.

THE TOWNS AND CITIES OF THE SOUTH

New Orleans had by 1850 become the chief town of the cotton kingdom. In 1815 the city had a population of only 33,000 people. In 1860 there were over 100,000. The exports from New Orleans included cotton, rice, flour, pork, tobacco, and corn. It had become the chief cotton port of the world.

The wharves, the streets, the houses, the people — all showed New Orleans to be more like an old European city than one of America. It was a city without factories, for the leading city of the South in 1860 lived almost by cotton alone.

The oldest of the important Southern cities was Richmond, the capital of Virginia. The site of Richmond was discovered by Captain John Smith and Captain Newport as they explored along the James River in 1607. The first permanent settlement made there was on land bought from the Indian chief Powhatan in 1609. It was originally called "Nonesuch" and was abandoned after Smith's first settlement until about 1645, when on this site Fort Charles was erected for defense against the Indians.

The city did not flourish until after 1733, when Colonel Byrd founded the town called Richmond. From that time until 1860 Richmond was the center of much of the charming plantation life of Old Virginia. It was beautifully situated and was easily reached by water and land. In Richmond were erected some of the finest buildings of the Old South. Richmond College, opened in 1832, was well known through the South for its fine college of law. Shortly afterward the Union Theological Seminary for the training of ministers and the Medical College of Virginia were opened there.

Richmond was always the center of Southern culture and of Southern opinion. It had several fine newspapers in which some of the best politicians published their writings. Aside from its cultural importance, however, Richmond was in 1860 an important trading center, particularly for tobacco.

Nashville, Tennessee, was in some respects typical of the cities which were growing up in the border states of the Old South. It was founded in 1780 by some 200 pioneers as "the advance guard of Western civilization." At that time it was far west of most of the settlements. It was named after the Revolutionary general Francis Nash and in its early years was called Nashborough.

In 1806 Nashville had grown to such an extent that it was incorporated as a city, and in 1843 it was made the capital of the state. Nashville was the scene of much fighting between the pioneers and the Creek and Cherokee Indians who were being driven from their lands.

Before the Civil War Nashville was already earning a reputation as one of the leading educational centers of the South. Davidson Academy, later known as Cumberland College, and still later as George Peabody College for Teachers, was opened in 1785, when the town was still a little frontier settlement.

Nashville, situated on the Cumberland River between hills and bluffs, was favorably located for trade. By 1860 it had become a city of about 50,000 people, with a fine residential section and many cool, shady parks. Its statehouse was built in the Greek style of architecture and was beautifully situated, looking down upon the city from a hilltop.

In Richmond and Nashville there were, of course, industries of several kinds. It was as trading and cultural centers, however, that the Southern cities were of most importance.

Some Textile-Manufacturing was carried on in the South

Although, for the reasons we have studied, industries had up to this time grown but slowly in the South, here and there farseeing people were trying to build up manufactures. Many Southerners knew that the cotton land was being steadily worn out, and that once destroyed it would be difficult to restore it.

In 1820, as we have seen, the first cotton-weaving factory in the South was opened in North Carolina. Ten years later another mill was opened at Greensboro. In 1852 in the Saluda Mills near Columbia, South Carolina, 128 laborers, all slaves, were running 5000 spindles and 120 looms. By 1862 there were nearly 40 textile mills, employing approximately 2000 workmen and using nearly 20,000 bales of cotton in a year.

Some of the cotton-manufacturers saw that manufacturing would be a great advantage to the Southern people. As it was, the South was exporting its raw cotton to England and the Northern states and later buying back the manufactured cloth — always at a much higher price than it would be necessary to pay if the cotton could be manufactured into cloth at home.

These men said that if mills were built in the cotton district the Southern growers would avoid heavy freight charges, their labor would be cheap, and the cloth could be turned out at a low cost. Furthermore, it was believed that the poor whites of the hill country would make good and cheap factory workers and would be glad to get the work.

Thus Southerners would have a monopoly of their own cotton business. All the profits from growing and manufacturing would go into the pockets of Southerners instead of into the pockets of English and Northern factory-owners. But most plantation-owners went on year after year raising cotton and buying their manufactured goods from the North; so manufacturing developed very slowly.

THE "GEOGRAPHY" OF THE OLD SOUTH HELPED TO EXPLAIN THE RISE OF THE COTTON KINGDOM

Thus in the first half of the nineteenth century several million people had moved into the Southern wilderness and transformed it into an important agricultural section. These Southerners had adopted very different ways of working and living from those of their Northern countrymen, for whereas the Northern people were living more and more by manufacturing and trade the Southerners were living almost entirely by farming.

What was the reason for the difference between the two sections? There were several reasons, but the chief ones were geographic, namely, favorable climate, level and fertile soil, and lack of minerals. One other reason was very important — the abundance of slave labor in the South.

Let us study briefly these reasons. Through them we shall see why the great cotton kingdom grew up as it did.

1. The mild climate of much of the South

Compare the map of the cotton belt, figure 186, with the maps of figures 187 and 188. The cotton belt lies almost entirely between 30 and 36 degrees north latitude. Notice, on the map of figure 187, that there is a large amount of rainfall in a year.

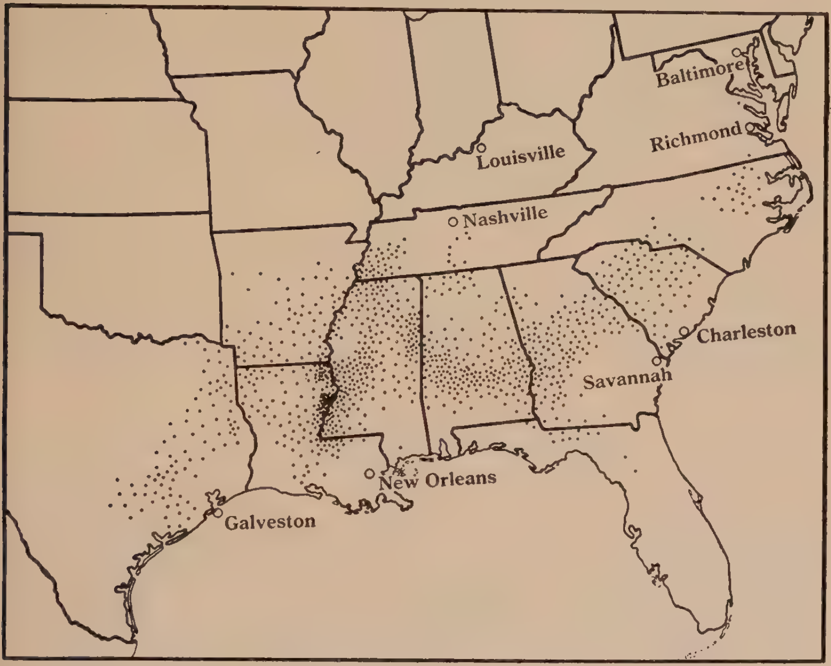

FIG. 186. The years 1800–1860 saw the rise of the powerful cotton kingdom. The dots on the map show where cotton was being grown. The important trading cities of the Old South are also shown

Now look at the map showing the length of the growing season, figure 188. Notice that throughout most of the cotton-growing states the weather is favorable for crop-raising from seven to eight months of the year.

Such a location, such a temperature, and such an abundance of rainfall provided conditions extremely favorable for cotton cultivation. Small wonder that the region became one of the most profitable cotton-growing sections of the world!

2. Much of the land was fairly low and level and the soil was rich

Turn back to the relief map of figure 113. Notice that the land is fairly level throughout most of the cotton belt. In North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and even in Alabama, the southern ends of the Appalachian ranges jut down part way into the coastal plain. Nevertheless, there are nearly 400,000 square miles of fairly level land suitable for growing cotton. Most of the land is less than 1000 feet above sea level.

Much of the soil, particularly that along the Gulf, is rich and very well suited for yielding large crops. Near the Mississippi River many thousands of acres of land are made fertile constantly by inundations; each time after the water has receded a regular deposit of sediment is left over the plain. In fact, throughout the entire cotton belt the soil is fairly rich. Thus fertility of soil was a very important factor in the rise of the cotton kingdom.

3. The South had less coal and iron than the Northern states

As you learned from your study of *An Introduction to American Civilization*, there is far more coal and iron in the Northern than in the Southern states. The map of figure 182 shows you that the great soft-coal deposits of the United States lie north of the cotton belt. The soft-coal deposits of Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Alabama are comparatively small. Although coal had been discovered in Alabama in 1827, less than 1000 tons were mined each year to 1840. As for anthracite coal almost all of it was in Pennsylvania.

Furthermore, there was little iron in the South. There was some in Tennessee, and there were large deposits near Birmingham, Alabama, but these mines were not developed until after 1880.

You remember from your study of *An Introduction to American Civilization* how important iron and coal were in the building up of machine manufacturing in the northern United States. With almost no development of those two very important products

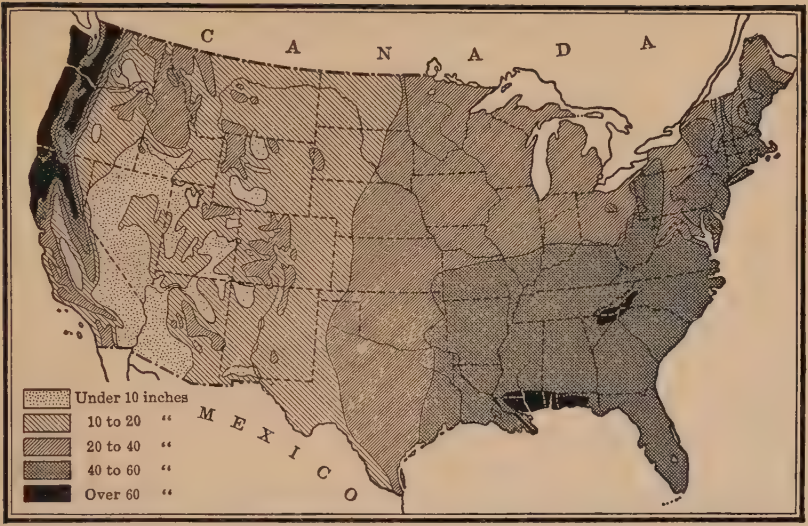
CANADA
MEXICO
Under 10 inches
10 to 20 "
20 to 40 "
40 to 60 "
Over 60 "

FIG. 187. This map shows the average number of inches of rainfall in a year in different sections of the country. The cotton belt averages from 40 to 60 inches of rainfall during the year

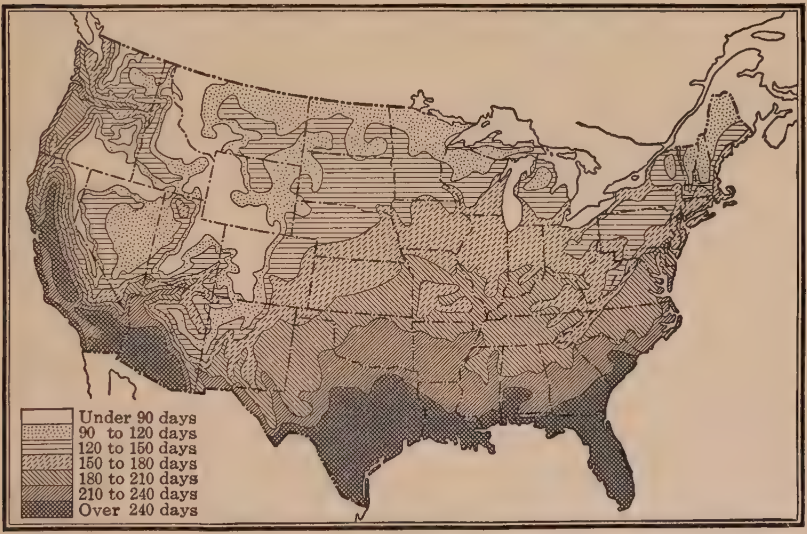
Under 90 days
90 to 120 days
120 to 150 days
150 to 180 days
180 to 210 days
210 to 240 days
Over 240 days

FIG. 188. This map shows the average number of days when the weather is favorable for growing crops. Notice that the land included in the cotton belt has a growing season of more than 180 days in every year

before 1860, it is clear that the South was greatly hampered in starting on a career of manufacturing. It was not, however, so serious a handicap that it could not have been overcome within a few years if the Civil War had not occurred between 1861 and 1865. The South lost the war and was so greatly weakened by loss of men and destruction of property that it was many years more before the cotton kingdom was ready to start manufacturing.

4. A most important reason for the development of the cotton belt — slave labor

You have read how the invention of Eli Whitney's cotton gin greatly increased the importance of slavery and the value of slaves. Between 1820 and 1860 the Negro population was more than doubled. In the cotton belt the black people were bought and sold for increasingly high prices, since the cheap and useful labor they provided made them very valuable to their masters. Hence Southern planters came more and more to rely upon slave labor, and the use of free labor was almost unknown on the great plantations of the South.

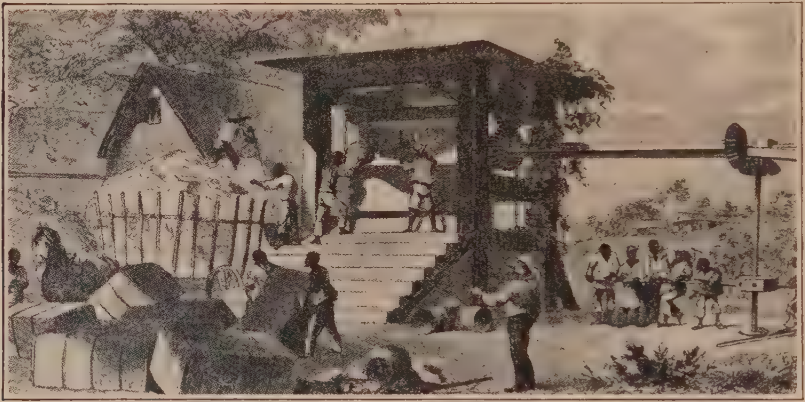

FIG. 189. A cotton-pressing machine in the South. Slaves grew the cotton, ginned, pressed, and baled it, and took it to the railroads or wharves for shipment

We have found that the geography of the North was very different from that of the South. It was different in climate —

the North was temperate and stimulating (changing), whereas the South was more continuously warm. It was different in the length of the growing season, that of the Southern states being much longer than that of the Northern. The land, too, was different in the two sections. In the South the low, level, fertile land and the amount of rainfall made it an excellent region for growing cotton. The two sections were different in mineral resources, coal and iron being found in great abundance in the North, in less abundance and that comparatively undeveloped in the South. Moreover, the labor of the two sections was different: slaves did the work of the South, whereas free and, for the most part, skilled workmen did the work of the North.

Hence for various reasons the South became a great cotton section during the years that the Northern states were becoming a manufacturing section; in fact, before 1860 the traditions and the ways of working and living in the two sections had become very different.

SUMMARY: WHAT, THEN, WAS THE COTTON KINGDOM FROM THE 1840'S UNTIL 1860?

1. It was a great agricultural region covering the lower South and given over almost entirely to the growing of cotton.
2. The wealth and control was largely in the hands of a few families.
3. The wealth of these people depended on abundant, cheap labor, which was supplied by slaves.
4. Millions of acres of soil and timber land were wasted by trying to squeeze the largest possible amount of cotton out of each plantation every year.
5. Two thirds of the population were poor-white farmers, having nothing to do with slavery and barely getting a living out of the soil.
6. In contrast with the North, towns and cities were few and far between. The few cities were markets for the buying and selling of cotton and contained very few manufacturing establishments.

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CHAPTER XIX

THE CIVIL WAR (1861-1865) BROUGHT A NEW INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

In 1861 the world was electrified by startling news! Several Southern states had withdrawn from the Union. The new President of the United States, Abraham Lincoln, had called for 75,000 volunteers! Civil war had broken out between the northern and southern sections of America.

Differences between the North and the South

For 50 years the two sections had been growing steadily, but as we have seen they grew in very different ways.

In the first place, the economic interests of North and South were different. The North was already developing into a prosperous center of machine manufacturing and trade; coal and iron were being mined in increasing quantities; and more than 20,000 miles of railroads tied the northern Mississippi and Ohio valleys to the northeastern seaboard.

As new factories were built, villages were growing into towns, and towns were becoming cities. New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, and Chicago had long since passed the 100,000 mark in population. Pittsburgh, Detroit, and Cleveland were already thriving centers of trade and industry. In New England textile, shoe, and machine towns were growing fast.

Northern agriculture, as well as manufacturing, was beginning to feel the influence of the new industrial age as machines were making their appearance on the farms of the Middle West. On the plains west of the Mississippi great herds of cattle were being raised. The North was indeed becoming prosperous, almost rich.

In the South, however, the economic interests were centered in cotton-planting. It is true that small industrial beginnings were showing themselves as a few farsighted planters had begun to think of bringing cotton mills into the South. Ironworks had been opened in Alabama, Tennessee, and Georgia, about 10,000 miles of railroad were already laid, and plans were being made for the Southern Pacific Railroad to connect the Southeast and the Far West. The great mass of white people, however, struggled along raising cotton, tobacco, corn, and sugar cane on their little farms.

A growing body of wealthy planters owned more than 3,500,000 slaves and were gaining fortunes out of raising cotton, which was shipped to the Northern states or to England to be manufactured.

Some progressive Southerners resented their dependence on the North for manufactured goods. The following excerpt from an editorial which appeared in the *Charleston Courier* in April, 1855, illustrates the feeling:

> Whence come your axes, hoes, scythes? Yes, even your plows, harrows, rakes, ax and auger handles? Your furniture, carpets, calicos, and muslins? The cradle that rocks your infant to sweet slumbers — the top your boy spins — the doll your little girl caresses — the clothes your children wear — the books from which they are educated . . . all are imported into South Carolina.

Thus, although Northerners and Southerners were all Americans, sharp resentment and misunderstanding began to grow between them.

Many Southern planters felt only contempt for Northern business men. Many felt as one writer expressed it:

> We expect true refinement of mind in America to be born and nurtured and to exist chiefly in the Southern portions of the Union . . . the pride of the North is in her dollars and cents, her factories and her ships. . . . The pride of the South is in her sons, in their nobleness of soul, their true gentility, honor, and manliness. . . . Both have their gratification, one in her dollars, the other in her sons.

On the other hand, many Northerners pictured the South as a section where wealthy landowners sat on their shady lawns in spotless linen, living by the misery of their slaves. To Northern people slaves were miserable creatures, whose life was made a burden by whippings, long, enforced hours of labor, and the constant fear of the slave market and a new overseer. They imagined all overseers to be like the cruel Simon Legree pictured by Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe in her *Uncle Tom's Cabin.*

DIFFERENT WAYS OF LIVING HAD CREATED POLITICAL DIFFERENCES

For 50 years the planters of the South had fought bitterly against the merchants and manufacturers of the North. The latter wanted to increase the profits of their growing manufactures and trade, while the former wanted to increase the profits from cotton-growing.

The struggle was even brought into the national Congress. In the halls of the Senate and the House of Representatives at Washington the orators of the North and the South argued with one another. Each section fought to have laws passed that would favor its own development. Northern and Southern preachers in their pulpits, professors in their classrooms, platform speakers, newspaper editors, authors of books — all criticized and denounced one another.

What were these vigorous arguments about? About many things, of course, but three stood out as of chief importance: (1) states' rights, (2) slavery, (3) the tariff.

The first cause of misunderstanding, states' rights, will be considered in the next volume of this series, for it was largely a difference in political opinion. The other two causes of the difficulties between the North and the South affected the manner in which people earned their living.

Remember that the mass of the people, both North and South, were poor and were only indirectly concerned with the struggle. Most of the white people in the South had no slaves; most of the Northerners were still living on farms and were not profiting directly from the sale of manufactured goods.

Our preceding studies, however, have made very clear the fact that most of the wealthy planters of the South depended upon the profits from cotton which was grown by slaves. Hence they wanted to protect and increase slavery.

Correspondingly, the wealthy Northern industrialists lived largely on the profits from the sale of their manufactured goods, which were produced by the work of cheap white labor. These Northern leaders wanted to protect and increase the sale of manufactures by high tariffs, or taxes on goods imported into the country. The Northern manufacturers said that foreign goods could be manufactured abroad and brought into this country very much more cheaply than American goods could be made and sold at home. They insisted, therefore, that the government pass laws imposing a tariff on articles manufactured in other countries and imported into the United States.

The Southerners were bitterly opposed to the tariff. They were not manufacturing goods themselves, they had almost no industries to protect, and they bought manufactured goods in great quantities from the North and from foreign countries, especially England. They even bought back from them their own cotton made into cloth and garments. They argued that if a high protective tariff were laid on foreign goods the Northerners would be able to charge them almost any price they wished.

There were other minor points of difference between the North and the South, but these were the chief ones.

Since we are to tell the story more fully in the next volume, we must pass over the important events of the 1840's and 1850's.

By the end of 1860 it was clear that only war could settle the questions in dispute between the North and the South.

In April, 1861, actual fighting between the two sections had begun, and for four years the entire country thought of scarcely anything but war. Over 4,000,000 men out of a total population of about 31,000,000 people were sent into the field by both sides. More than 700,000 of these were killed, and hundreds of thousands of others were wounded.

The South was laid waste. Homes were ruined. Crops were destroyed. Billions of dollars were spent.

During the first two years the Southern armies held their ground against the more powerful North. They were brave soldiers, and they were fighting grimly against an enemy stronger than they, but steadily it became evident that the South was losing and that the wealth and power of the North could not fail to conquer.

As we look back at the war now, nearly three quarters of a century after, we can see plainly that it would have been impossible for the South to win. Notice the vast differences in resources:

Northern States	Southern States
1. 23 states	1. 11 states
2. 22,000,000 people, mostly white	2. 9,000,000 people, over one third black slaves
3. 1,557,000 enlisted soldiers	3. 1,082,000 enlisted soldiers
4. More than two thirds of the nation's capital	4. Less than one third of the nation's capital
5. The control of nearly all the iron, steel, textile, and munition industries	5. Only a few manufacturing industries and they in their infancy
6. The control of a vast majority of the nation's foreign commerce	6. Few ships and little outside trade
7. Millions of skilled laborers	7. Few skilled laborers
8. About 20,000 miles of railroad	8. About 10,000 miles of railroad

After 1863 the Southern armies were weakened by loss of men, by ruined means of transportation and communication, and by lack of new supplies. Finally, on April 9, 1865, the main Confederate army, led by General Robert E. Lee, surrendered to General U. S. Grant at Appomattox, and the war was over.

The War brought a New Industrial Revolution in the North

How did the war affect the North and the South?

The war ruined the agriculture of the South, but it led to amazing progress in the industry of the North, where it changed industries and business in two ways: (1) it made an enormous demand upon the factories of the North for manufactured goods, and factories grew as they met the demand; (2) it found a way to provide the money to pay for the goods and taught men the value of large accumulations of capital.

How the War taught Industrial Leaders Mass Production

1. How the war changed the cloth and garment industries

At the beginning of the war there were almost no uniforms for the newly enlisted soldiers. At first the regiments were strange-looking groups of untrained men in ordinary clothing. Lack of uniforms actually caused men to shoot at their own comrades, believing that they were enemies. There was no way of distinguishing the soldiers of one army from those of the other. Also during the first winter the men shivered from cold, because they had not been provided with blankets, warm uniforms, overcoats, and warm underclothing.

By 1860 the ready-made clothing industry was developing. The sewing machine was just coming into general use. To meet the need garment factories were started, in which the new machines turned out great numbers of uniforms, shirts, and underclothes. A shirt which took no less than twelve to fourteen hours to make by hand could be made in an hour and a quarter with a sewing machine. Thus the war helped to bring about the beginning of a great garment industry.

It also caused a new growth in the cotton and woolen industries. New woolen mills were built to meet the demand for cloth. The government issued big orders and offered high prices. The Northern manufacturers responded by opening new factories which were soon turning out huge amounts of supplies. Some of the Northern cotton mills were transformed into woolen mills. The accompanying table shows clearly the amazing growth which occurred in the woolen industry before and after the years of fighting.

Amount of Wool Consumed Annually	
Before the war . . .	85,000,000 pounds
After the war . . .	200,000,000 pounds

Raw Wool Produced Annually in the North	
Before the war . . .	40,000,000 pounds
After the war . . .	140,000,000 pounds

2. A revolution came in shoemaking

In 1850 most shoes were made slowly by hand in small shops very much as they had been made by the shoemakers of colonial days. To be sure, machines had been invented for pegging, cutting soles, and binding uppers, but they were not used widely. Howe's sewing machine opened the way for the improvement and use of sewing machines in other industries. Just before the war the McKay shoe-sewing machine was invented. The result was that soon great factories using steam-driven shoe machines were built. Work went on at top speed. The first year that the McKay machine was generally used, 1,500,000 pairs of shoes were made — twice as many as ever before. Without these machines the Northern shoemakers could never have filled the government's orders for hundreds of thousands of pairs of shoes for the army.

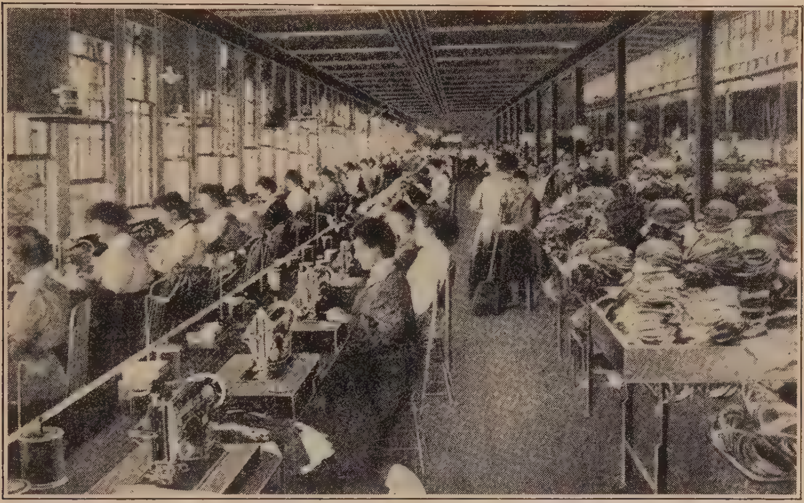

FIG. 190. An early sewing-machine room in a shoe factory. Sewing machines were introduced during the Civil War to speed up the supply of shoes for the Northern army. (Photograph from Keystone View Company)

Furthermore, to supply leather for this increased demand the tanning industries worked overtime. Even the cattle-raisers of the West were affected, as huge herds of cattle were shipped to the East to furnish leather for shoes for the Northern armies, and dried and tinned beef for food.

3. The reaper and other agricultural machines raised large quantities of food

McCormick, you remember, had invented the reaper 30 years before the war, but farmers had been slow to adopt it. It was expensive, and there were plenty of men to do the work with the old hand tools.

But when the war came thousands of able-bodied men left the fields to join the armies. For several years old men, young boys, and women were the nation's farmers. Yet even more food was produced in the Northern states during the war than ever before. In fact, there was such an increase in farm crops that the United States was able to sell grain to Europe to help pay the cost of war!

At last the farming machines were being put to work. Even a young boy or girl could cut several acres of grain a day with the reaper, thereby accomplishing the work of a dozen men with a cradle. Stories were told of women who sent all their men to the war and yet gathered plentiful harvests.

"The reaper is to the North what the slave is to the South," remarked Edward M. Stanton, Secretary of War in Lincoln's cabinet. "It releases our young men to do battle for the Union, and at the same time keeps up the supply of the nation's bread."

Although nearly 3,000,000 Northern men were serving in the army, the crops steadily increased. Englishmen were astonished when they heard that the United States was shipping more wheat to them than before the war, and at the same time supporting large armies in the field.

4. The American canned goods helped to feed the soldiers

One of the chief military problems was that of preserving food for the soldiers. Before 1800 Nicolas Appert, a Frenchman, had invented a system of preserving foods by cooking them and sealing them in glass jars. Appert and his family had built up a little canned-food industry in France, but everything was done by hand and on a small scale. The canned foods were very good, but they were very expensive, and so were not widely purchased.

In 1821 an Englishman in America, William Underwood, devised a way of sealing cooked foods in tin cans. The tin preserved the food as well as glass and could not be broken so easily. For a long time, however, the process was not very satisfactory. Much hand preparation of the food was still required, and the goods were very expensive.

Then came the tremendous demands of the hungry armies, and inventors worked out better methods of making cans, and preparing and cooking the food. Machines were invented for making and sealing the cans and for lightening the labor of preparing the food. Millions of cans of food were prepared for the soldiers. After the war the canning industries continued to grow. Today American canned food is sold all over the world.

5. The war also brought a boom in railroad-building

As the war developed a great demand arose from the Northern generals for more railroads. Guns, ammunition, food, and clothing had to be kept flowing to the armies wherever they might be fighting. Often the soldiers themselves had to be transported swiftly from one battle front to another.

All kinds of products and raw materials, such as grain, meat, wool, iron, copper, and lead, had to be shipped from the farms and mines of the West to the factories and cities of the East to be prepared for the use of the fighting men.

Since there were no automobiles, only railroads could solve the problem. So new rails were laid extending main lines and connecting many branches with them. Ferries were replaced by bridges. In many places old wooden bridges gave way to iron or steel ones. Nearly 4000 miles of new track were laid while the war was going on.

Furthermore, in the midst of war, plans were completed for building the great transcontinental railways. In 1862, President Lincoln signed a bill for the support of the construction of the Union Pacific and Southern Pacific lines. Work was begun on them but went forward slowly until the war ended.

Then the railroad boom began. Within four years, more than 4000 miles of new railroad had spread westward, and by 1872, seven years after the close of the war, approximately 7500 miles had been built on these Pacific lines.

During the days when the North was busily carrying on the war, traffic on the old lines increased enormously. The number of passengers and the amount of freight on important railroads like the Pennsylvania, the Erie, and the Illinois Central doubled. The Mississippi River was controlled by the Southern army, so that Northern goods could not be shipped downstream by boat. That gave the railroads their opportunity to build up the trade of carrying the enormous freight of the West to Eastern markets. It was in these years that the railroad lines connecting the Mississippi Valley and the Atlantic cities established their hold on the freight-carrying business of the country.

At the end of the war the railroads of the North had grown to about 38,000 miles, most of them in fairly good condition. Some of the Eastern lines were starting to consolidate and to use the same gauge (width of track). To be sure, most of the lines had only a single track, and many needed improvements had not been made. Yet the railroad was fully developed as a means of transportation, and it had proved itself most important as a rapid means of connecting separated parts of the country.

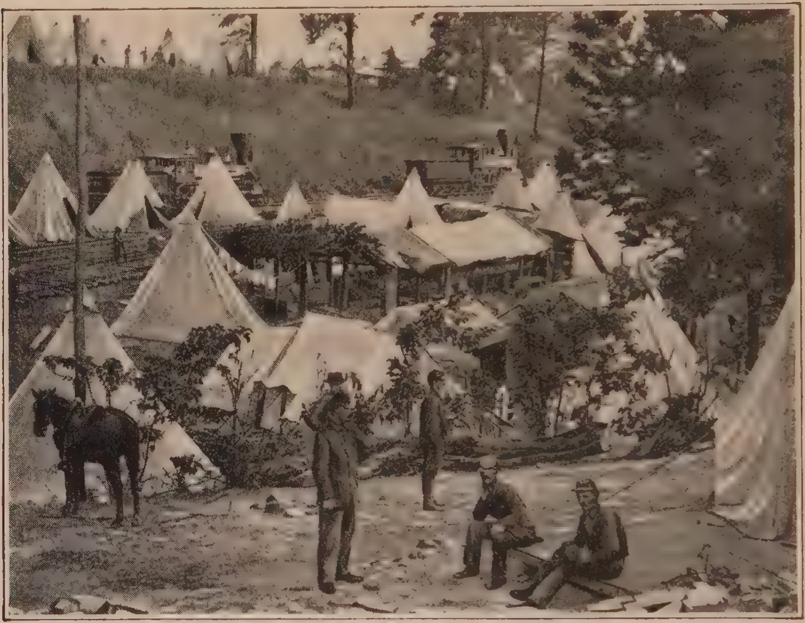

Fig. 191. An army camp during the Civil War. Notice that it lies on both sides of and close to the railroad track. The railroads played an important part during the war in transporting men, ammunition, food, and clothing, and many miles of new railroad were constructed while the war was in progress. (A Brady photograph, from the United States Signal Corps)

These five examples illustrate one way in which the war brought on a new Industrial Revolution in the North. It had taught Northern manufacturers their first lessons in *mass production.* By forcing them to produce guns, items of clothing, and items of food *by the million* it had opened their minds to the possibilities of producing things *on a large scale.* It was at this time also that the changing industries began to apply to a great extent the ideas of *standardization.* We have already studied something about this and shall study more about it in the next chapter.

Another Lesson Learned by Mass Production

The war taught the captains of industry another lesson,—namely, that *mass production* can be carried on only with huge amounts of capital concentrated in the control of one person or one group. It taught this lesson by showing how the central government — in absolute control of the country and its industries in time of war — could raise undreamed of sums of money. The government had done this in two ways — by taxing all the people and by borrowing from capitalists in England and other European countries.

When war began supplies had to be made ready for the armies immediately. The government of the North issued large contracts for supplies on a scale which the world had never known before. The government cared little about the cost. The only thought was to win the war.

The tremendous amounts of food, clothing, guns, and other supplies needed by the armies drained the treasuries both of the North and of the South very quickly. Huge sums of money had to be raised to meet the crisis. Time after time all the people were taxed, but it was impossible to raise enough money in the entire country to carry on the war. Then the Northern government began to borrow from Europe and by the end of the war found itself in debt to the amount of $3,000,000,000. But the war had been won, and the leaders of industry and business had had their lesson in mass production.

How the War left the North and the South

What was the final outcome of the great struggle, for the North? The union of all the "United" States had been maintained by armed force. The slaves had been legally made *freemen.* For many years the North would rule the country.

The war had been won at the cost of great personal suffering, however; more than 700,000 men were killed and perhaps an equal number maimed. Several hundred thousand homes had lost loved ones. One million men were out of work and had to find jobs.

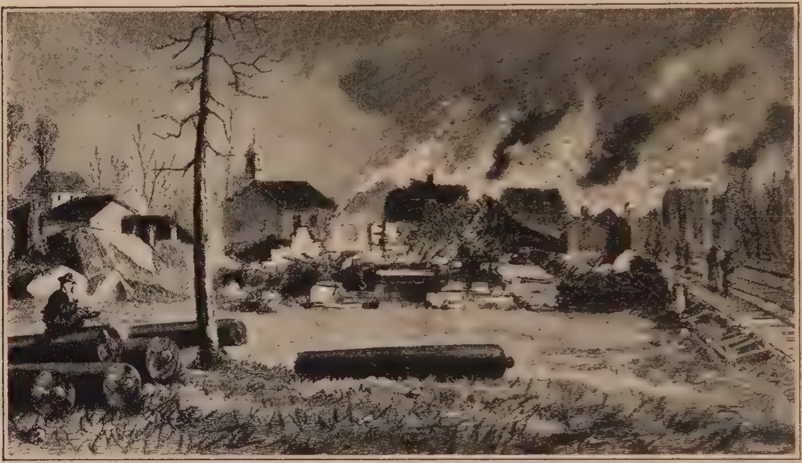

Fig. 192. War brought little but suffering to the South. (From *Harper's Weekly*, January 7, 1865)

Others, however, were not so unfortunate. Several thousand well-to-do people had made fortunes out of the war. Industry had grown rapidly, and mechanics were earning fairly good wages. American farm crops were increasing in demand in Europe, and the prices of Eastern farm land were rising. Cities and towns were growing as new factories sprang up in the industrial zone.

Most important of all there was the great undeveloped West with its free land and its mines of gold, silver, and other metals almost free for the taking. The Homestead Act (1862) had just opened millions of acres of fertile land to settlement, and soldiers were moving out to take up claims. The Union Pacific and Central Pacific railroads were spiking their way across the prairies and mountains. The cattle industry was thriving.

The North was, on the whole, cheerful and hopeful.

In the South conditions looked far less cheerful. The people were overwhelmed by defeat, by the great loss of life, and by suffering. Homes and plantations were laid waste; rich planters and poor farmers alike were ruined; slave power had been killed. Slaves were free, so that there was no longer cheap labor to aid in rebuilding the cotton kingdom.

Famine was close at hand. A Southern war clerk wrote in his diary on the morning of January 27, 1865:

> Clear and coldest morning of the winter. Only the speculators have a supply of food and fuel. . . . My wood-house was broken into last night and two of the nine sticks of wood taken. Wood is selling at five dollars a stick.

Yet, depressing as conditions were in the South in 1865, there was still hope in human breasts. The people went to work to rebuild their farms, their homes, their fortunes, and their bruised spirits. Some who had hoped to see manufacturing develop worked to make their dreams come true.

In Chapter XXII we shall see the way in which the South finally reconstructed its fortunes.

UNIT VIII

THE AGE OF BIG BUSINESS: 1865–1914

THE AGE OF BIG BUSINESS

You have learned how the Civil War ushered in a new Industrial Revolution; how it taught business men how to manufacture on a large scale; how it called for great sums of money with which to develop mass production; how it hastened the use of machines on the farms as well as in the cities.

Now we are to study the period of the great industrial expansion itself, — one of the most spectacular half-centuries in our country's history, — the period between the Civil War and the World War. In Chapter XX you will see how industry changed from a small-scale affair in 1865 to a gigantic scheme of corporation mass production in 1914. Be alert to see how geographic factors made this remarkable production possible. Note the ways in which the industrial expansion changed American civilization; how it influenced individual living, besides raising the general level of the standard of living.

In Chapter XXI three examples will be studied of the development of Big Business: the oil industry, the steel corporations, and the great banks. Running through these illustrations we shall see one thread, namely, the concentration of ownership of huge masses of capital in great corporations.

Finally, in Chapter XXII, we shall learn how a New South rose on the ruins of the old one after the close of the reconstruction period. We shall see the development of diversified kinds of agriculture along with the continued raising of cotton. We shall learn that after 1880 industries began to grow in the South: cotton-manufacturing, iron and steel and other manufactures. As had happened in the North, when industries developed in the South cities grew also. The trading and cultural centers of the South became industrial centers as well.

CHAPTER XX

THE GREAT INDUSTRIAL EXPANSION, 1865–1914

Industry and Farming still a Small-Scale Affair, 1865

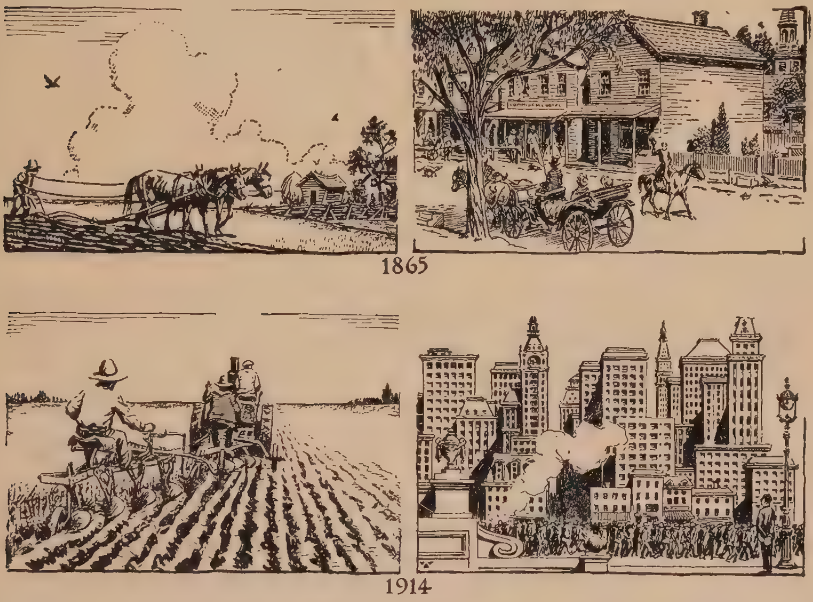

Fig. 193. These scenes show the contrast in American life between 1865 and 1914

In 1865 the United States was still a country of farms and small towns. There were, as you have seen, a few large cities, and they were growing, but the real industrial growth of the country had only begun.

Most of the farmers worked as their ancestors had done, using the old-fashioned plow, scythe, cradle, and flail. The muscles of animals and men provided most of the power.

In the cities the factories were small. They were turning out iron and steel goods, shoes, flour, paper, and cloth, but only on a very small scale. There were very few millionaires in the

United States. There were few great corporations. In Pennsylvania, for example, several hundred individual owners and small companies were digging coal. Much of the coal used in industry was still being imported from Nova Scotia. In Minnesota and Michigan the great iron fields lay almost undisturbed.

In 1865 the railroads, with about 50,000 miles of track, were only beginning to form a national system of transportation. Two thirds of the land lacked railroad connections. The cars were small and crude, lighted by smoky, smelly kerosene lamps. Passengers rode in discomfort, shivering with cold in winter. The iron rails over which ran the small puffing locomotives and coaches were weak and soon wore out. Air brakes had not yet been invented, and the dangers in stopping trains were great. There were many small branch lines, and passengers had to change cars at many junctions. Tracks were not all of the same width, and the cars of one railroad company could not roll over the rails of another.

Thus in spite of the industrial start given by the War between the States manufacturing, business, and farming were still on a comparatively small scale.

Fifty Years later America was a Leading Industrial Nation

The history of the next half-century proved that the War between the States had really ushered in a new Industrial Revolution. During those 50 years, 1865–1914, manufacturing, business, and farming were utterly transformed. As you read in Unit VI, many new inventions had been made between 1790 and 1860. The number steadily increased after 1865. Gradually in all trades machines took the place of craftsmen. Farmers adopted great power-driven machinery. Cities grew by leaps and bounds. Great central power stations were built, and electric power was sent over long distances to light cities and run factory machines. A few powerful corporations took the place of many individual owners and partnerships. By 1914 the United States had firmly established itself as a leading industrial nation.

We now turn to the story of this great industrial and financial expansion.

THE FACTORS WHICH MADE AMERICA'S DEVELOPMENT POSSIBLE

1. **Location in a productive and stimulating climate**
2. **Huge territory and varied resources**
3. **Many ambitious and energetic people**
4. **A growing body of scientific knowledge**

"The same factors we studied in *An Introduction to American Civilization*!" you exclaim.[1]

Exactly. These are the factors that help to explain our new industrial civilization today. They were the chief factors in 1865. By that time all four were coöperating to transform American ways of living. (Study the chart on page 466.)

ALL ASPECTS OF AMERICAN CIVILIZATION WERE TO CHANGE RAPIDLY

Every phase of American life was to be remade after the Civil War. A great national system of transportation was to be built. The national electrical-communication system was to become a highly developed and rapid aid to business. Agriculture was to make use of improved cultivating and harvesting machinery. Many mechanical devices were to lighten farm labor. Factory manufacturing was to reach undreamed of heights of production made possible by standardization of machines, division of labor, and mass production.

There were to come far-reaching changes in business with the development of great corporations combining many related industries under single managements. Cities would grow ever more rapidly. The independent life of the frontier was to yield completely to the interdependence of city, town, village, and farm. Every phase of American civilization was to change during the next 50 years of history.

EXAMPLES OF CHANGE IN MANUFACTURING

1. Inventions increased rapidly

The changes which occurred in manufacturing were brought about in part through an astonishing burst of invention. The

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[1] If necessary the class should review at this point Chapters II to V of *An Introduction to American Civilization.*

ESSENTIALS OF *AN INTRODUCTION TO AMERICAN CIVILIZATION*

In comparison with the people of America in the past and with those of other countries today, most of the people of the United States have

A GOOD STANDARD OF LIVING

THE FACTORS WHICH HAVE CAUSED OUR RELATIVELY COMFORTABLE WAY OF LIVING

STIMULATING CLIMATE	HUGE SIZE AND VARIED RESOURCES	MANY PEOPLE READY TO WORK	SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE
Variable temperature, rainfall, and winds, help to produce good crops and also healthy energetic people	A large area of fertile land. Good waterways, and abundant power resources, and raw materials	A large number of ambitious and inventive people of varied ancestry	By the general use of scientific methods people invented a great variety of powerful and efficient engines and machines

MANY ASPECTS OF OUR CIVILIZATION HAVE BEEN CHANGED

<table>
<tr><th>TRANSPORTATION</th><th>COMMUNICATION</th><th>AGRICULTURE</th><th>MANUFACTURING</th><th>TRADE</th></tr>
<tr><td>Improvement of highways, of railways, of waterways, of airways. Development of automobiles, trains, steamships, and aircraft</td><td>Communication made speedier through the invention of telegraph, telephone, wireless telegraph, and wireless telephone</td><td>Production increased through machines and scientific farming</td><td>Large-scale production of goods, specialization of jobs, and standardization of parts and processes</td><td>Growing need for the exchange of goods. Increase of domestic and foreign trade of the American people</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">THE CORPORATION
Large business and industrial organizations promote mining, transportation, communication, manufacturing, and trade</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">GROWTH OF CITIES
Concentration of people in cities due to factory manufacturing, transportation, communication, and trade</td></tr>
</table>

INTERDEPENDENCE: AN IMPORTANT CHARACTERISTIC OF OUR MODERN AMERICAN CIVILIZATION

People depend upon one another
Workers depend upon one another
Industries depend upon one another
Sections depend upon one another
The United States Depends upon Many Other Countries of the World

number of inventions patented every year is shown by the files of the United States Patent Office. Notice the astonishing growth shown in the years between 1860 and 1900.

NUMBER OF PATENTS GRANTED	
In the year 1860	5000
In the year 1866	9000
In the year 1869	13,000
In the 1890's more than . . .	20,000
After 1900 more than	25,000

Those figures do not mean that *all* the inventors who were granted patents had succeeded in completing entirely new inventions. They do mean that at least several thousand inventors had improved machines already in use, made new devices and appliances for old machines, and designed implements of all kinds which had been used before in another form.

The new inventions sharply changed ways of living in America. Some of the outstanding industries of the country were completely revolutionized. In iron and steel making hundreds of machines, attachments, appliances, and implements were invented. Engines were enlarged and improved. Greater amounts of power were generated. Powerful traveling cranes were constructed to move raw materials and finished products over short distances.

Recall from your study of *An Introduction to American Civilization* how the modern blast furnace contrasted with the crude old blast furnaces of the days of William Kelly and Sir Henry Bessemer. Recall also the methods of loading and unloading iron ore, coal, and coke, of removing and transferring molten slag and molten iron, of lifting great vats of hot steel and pouring the metal from giant ladles into molds.

Electric and steam shovels as well as cranes were devised to lift ore. Shears, rollers, stamping machines, power scrapers, immense ore and coal unloaders, and furnace-charging machinery were all invented to improve the making of steel and to relieve the muscles of men. Railroad rails weighing tons were rolled swiftly into shape between the rollers of machines. Steel bridge girders, engine boilers, wheels, axles, and many heavy parts of locomotives and cars were made rapidly and handled easily by the new giant machines.

Accurate and powerful machines for making machines and machine parts were also invented. In the shoe industry, for example, scores of men perfected complicated machines and appliances that made machines that made shoes.

Almost all other industries were also being changed by the invention and the rapid growing use of new machines.

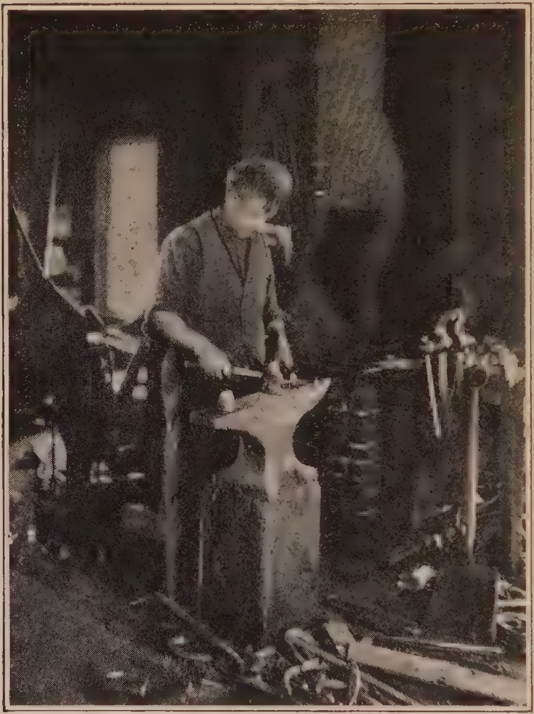

FIG. 194. In 1865 the blacksmith forged even small articles entirely by hand. (Photograph by Clifton Johnson)

In the textile industry the spinning and weaving machines were being made more powerful, durable, and efficient. The earlier machines could spin but few threads at a time on a small frame. Each weaver in the cotton and woolen mills ran only one inefficient and crude loom. After the Civil War, however, spinning frames and looms were vastly improved, and by 1900 it was possible to spin hundreds of threads on a single frame, and unaided a weaver could run four looms. But even by this date the weaver had to stop his looms when the thread on a bobbin ran out, and change the bobbin by hand. Then came the invention of attachments by which bobbins could be changed automatically while the looms continued to run. By 1914 that one invention alone had made it possible for a single weaver to run sixteen looms instead of four as in 1900.

Slowly the rubber industry began to develop. Goodyear's invention of the vulcanizing process led other inventors to devise new ways of manufacturing rubber goods. Rubber goods came to be sold in every drug store and department store in the country. After 1880 rubber was used by electrical companies, telephone companies, tire companies, office-supply and plumbing companies, and a host of others, and the list of rubber articles grew longer and longer. Rubber had become a material for everyday use.

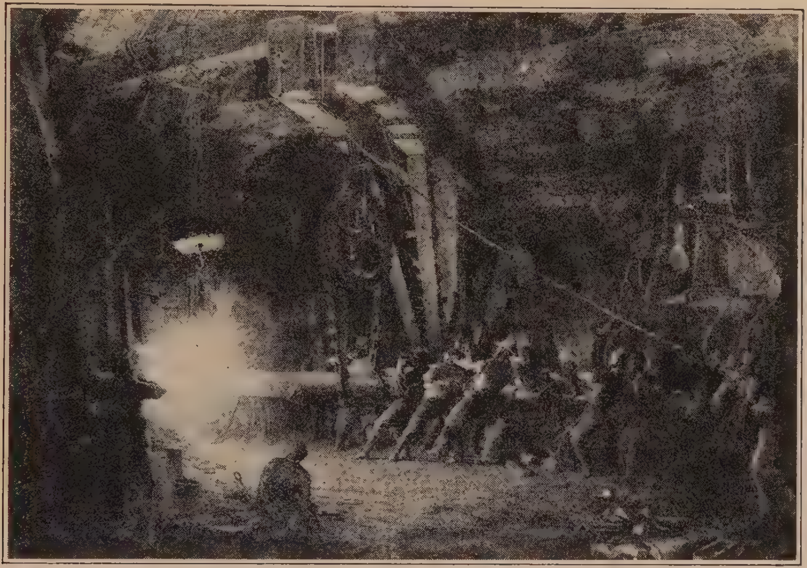

FIG. 195. In 1914 even the forging of great shafts was done by machine. Notice that the shaft itself is upheld by a powerful crane. (From a painting by John F. Weir. Courtesy of the Metropolitan Museum of Art)

Paper-making machines were invented which turned out every kind of paper from fine linen stationery to coarse wood-pulp newspaper and wrapping paper. In the field of printing and publishing, improvements were made in electrotyping and in bookbinding. New color processes of reproducing illustrations were invented, and books became increasingly more attractive and better made.

Inventions changed ways of carrying on business as well as manufacture. In 1867 C. L. Sholes, Carlos Glidden, and S. W. Soulé of Milwaukee, Wisconsin, invented a practicable typewriter which steadily replaced handwriting in offices and stores. After 1900 the dictaphone was used to dictate communications into an instrument and record them. Calculating and bookkeeping machines were invented to simplify accounting. Fountain pens supplanted the old steel pens, and mimeographing and multigraphing inventions made it possible to reproduce great numbers of letters, announcements, and advertising matter quickly.

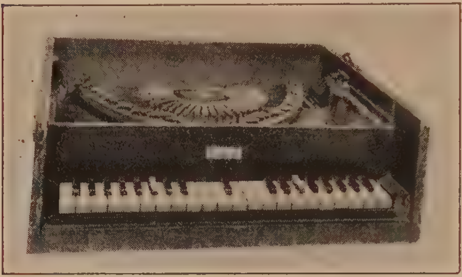
FIG. 196. One of the earliest typewriters

Many varieties of electrical apparatus and fixtures were invented by Edison and his followers. Irons, vacuum cleaners, washing machines, dish-washers, stoves, sewing machines, and refrigerators were improved and equipped with electric motors. These inventions are only a few of the thousands which lightened and made more efficient the work of offices and homes.

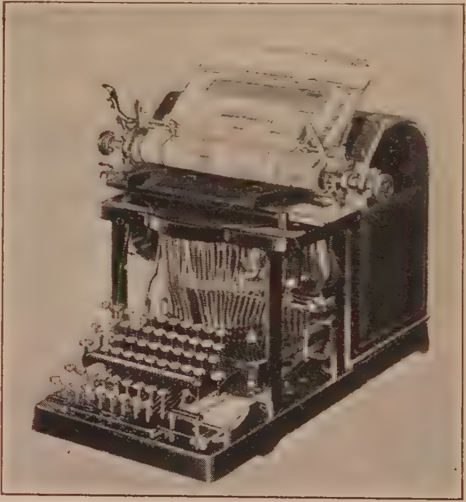
FIG. 197. A modern typewriter-bookkeeping machine. (Courtesy of the Burroughs Adding Machine Company)

We must not forget, of course, that in England, France, Germany, and other European countries inventors were making machines similar to ours. They were also improving methods of manufacturing and doing business. As you read in *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World*, the Germans especially were making remarkable advances in improving machinery and in applying electrical engineering and chemical knowledge to manufacturing. At the outbreak of the World War (1914) Germany was leading the world in applied science. Young Americans must not think that their country was alone in making remarkable strides in invention, industry, and business, for the changes that were coming in the late 1800's were taking place in western Europe and in Japan as well as in the United States.

Of course every new machine and new way of doing business was not adopted immediately all over the country. (Even today we read of towns where people are still doing things as their great-grandfathers did 75 years ago.) In most cases there were opposition and prejudice to overcome. In the Census Report of 1880, for example, we find an interesting example of the difficulty of getting new ways of living adopted:

> At the Atlanta Cotton Exposition of 1881 were to be found five women from the mountain section of Georgia spinning and weaving coarse cotton fabrics by the use of hand-card, the spinning-wheel, and the hand-loom. They were representatives of a large section of the United States and of a very considerable population, variously estimated at from 200,000 to 300,000 in number, who have not been reached until lately by the railroad, or been able to avail themselves of modern arts to any extent. As the measure of their work, two carders, two spinners, and one weaver could produce eight yards of coarse cotton cloth in a day of ten hours. The same number of persons employed in the modern cotton factories can, by the use of machinery, with far less arduous labor, produce 800 yards of the same cloth, or one hundred-fold as much.[1]

2. Means of transportation and communication improved

In the early years of the railroad, travel was neither safe, prompt, nor comfortable. Trains were running at 25 to 30 miles an hour over rails and roadbeds which were not built to withstand such rapid travel. Many accidents occurred. Animals also wandered onto the tracks and wrecked the little locomotives. The number of accidents increased until by the outbreak of the Civil War the public was constantly protesting against the loss of life. Gradually, however, locomotives became heavier, roadbeds more substantial and durable, and steel rails replaced the weak iron ones.

Then the passenger cars were improved. Andrew Carnegie, the most famous of the steel men, introduced sleeping cars on the Pennsylvania Railroad in the early 1860's. The first cars were built with three tiers of bunks like the berths in canal boats and ocean packets then being used.

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[1] *Tenth Census of the United States* (1880), Vol. IV ("Manufactures"), p. 941.

George Mortimer Pullman invented a new type of sleeping car, and in 1867 he organized a company called the Pullman Palace Car Company. This company manufactured a very ingeniously designed car which could be made up at night into two tiers of rather comfortable berths. Several years passed before the new type of sleeping car came into widespread use, but gradually it was adopted, and by 1914 the Pullman car was in general use.

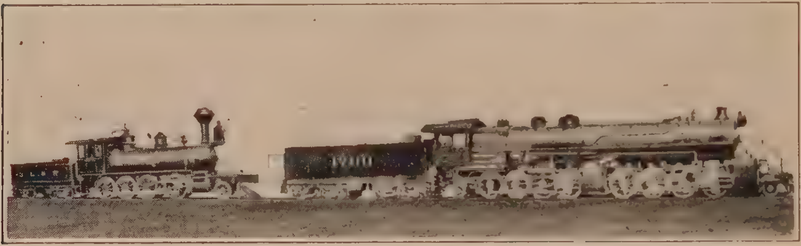

FIG. 198. The locomotive of 1876 and the locomotive of 1914. (Courtesy of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum)

In 1869 the air brake was invented by George Westinghouse and soon was adopted on railroad trains. That device made it possible to use compressed air to stop long, heavy trains of cars quickly.

Roadbeds of heavy stone foundations, well drained, made it possible for locomotives, freight, and passenger cars of great weight to pass over them at 60 miles an hour without danger. Heavy, powerful steam locomotives weighing hundreds of tons could then draw long trains even across the highest mountains with little regard for weather. On northern and mountain roads in winter heavy snowplows were pushed ahead of the trains to clear the tracks, and sand boxes were carried by trains so that sand could be sprinkled on the tracks to prevent slipping on steep grades. Thus railroad travel was constantly made safer.

Within the towns and cities electric street cars came increasingly into use after 1890, taking the place of the early horse-drawn cars, which ran on flimsy rails. One betterment in electric street cars came when the rails were so improved that it was possible to sink them to the street level.

Roads had been built through every small town in the United States. Automobiles speeded over them, carrying people and produce rapidly to other parts of the country.

Means of communication had improved as well. You already know from your study of *An Introduction to American Civilization* that Samuel F. B. Morse invented the first practicable telegraph in 1844. In 1851, the telegraph was first used by the railroads to send orders to employees and to keep in communication with trains which were on the road. As the telegraph came into more widespread use it added greatly to the safety of railroad travel. The principle of Morse's telegraph, you remember, was used by Cyrus Field in laying the Atlantic cable. Then in 1876 Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone, and in 1895 Marconi succeeded in sending wireless messages through the air.

Meanwhile the postal systems had been improved, and post offices were to be found in almost every small community throughout the length and breadth of the United States.

Thus by 1914 the American people were able to travel rapidly, safely, and comfortably over their country, and the produce of one section could be shipped to any other section of the United States. By this time, also, the American people could communicate very rapidly with people in other communities remote from them — indeed, with people in far distant lands.

3. The development of chemical inventions and industries

From the earliest Colonial times, industries had been carried on which made use of a knowledge of chemistry. In Connecticut, by the middle 1600's, alum, tin, lead, antimony, and vitriol were being manufactured. Throughout the 1700's infant chemical industries such as those engaged in the manufacture of glass, lead, powder, sulphuric acid, and dyestuffs were developing. The early 1800's saw the beginning of other chemical industries as new processes were invented. In 1842 Thomas Kingsford invented the process for making starch from corn. Condensed milk was first made and sold by Gail Borden in 1856. By 1865 chemical knowledge was being used more and more in many industries.

In 1867 B. C. Tilghmann devised a practical process for making paper from wood pulp. Celluloid was made in Newark, New Jersey, in 1869. Portland cement was successfully manufactured in 1872.

In developing a great many industries more knowledge of chemistry was demanded. Schools began to teach chemistry and manufacturers installed laboratories in their plants, that their particular problems might be worked out.

With the establishment of schools and industrial laboratories, many young scientists were trained in chemistry. Throughout the 1890's and early 1900's scores of new processes were found.

In the metal industries pioneers like William H. Nichols discovered new ways of separating copper, lead, zinc, and silver from their ores. They also learned to extract by-products from oil and coal. After the invention of the new chemical processes fortunes were made in refining ores as the new ways of smelting and refining copper, lead, and iron produced better and cheaper metals.

Huge quantities of cheaper, harder, and more durable steel were produced by the discovery of new alloys. You read in *An Introduction to American Civilization* how steel alloys are made. The work of industrial chemists contributed much to the building up of the great steel corporations.

The mining industry was, of course, greatly improved by mechanical inventions as well as by the growing knowledge of chemistry. Mechanics invented compressed-air drills for boring into rock, while engineers devised ways of working deep and dangerous mines.

The canning industry developed after chemists proved that food would not spoil if it was heated properly before canning and then sealed air-tight. We have seen how Nicolas Appert learned that heating did something to food which kept it from spoiling so long as it was tightly sealed. But what it did he did not know. By studying the problem scientifically the chemists learned that the germs in the air and in the food cause foods to spoil, and they taught canners that their food factories must be kept absolutely clean. They also taught them how to kill the germs which spoil foods.

Inventors also worked at the problem of perfecting canning machines. In salmon canneries "iron chinks" were invented for cleaning and trimming the fish. A series of machines was perfected for shelling, cleaning, and grading peas. In corn-canning, machines were made for husking the ears and cutting the kernels from the cob. Other machines were devised for washing, peeling, slicing, and packing foods. The cans themselves were improved, the tops being sealed by machinery. The labels were printed in colors and pasted to the cans by other machines.

The laborers who worked in the canning industries fought bitterly against every improvement in the machines, calling them "iron slaves." They tried the usual methods of preventing their use. If a factory-owner introduced a machine for canning tomatoes, for example, his workers struck, and he would be obliged to shut down his factory at the season when the tomatoes were ripe, so that his supply would spoil before they could be canned.

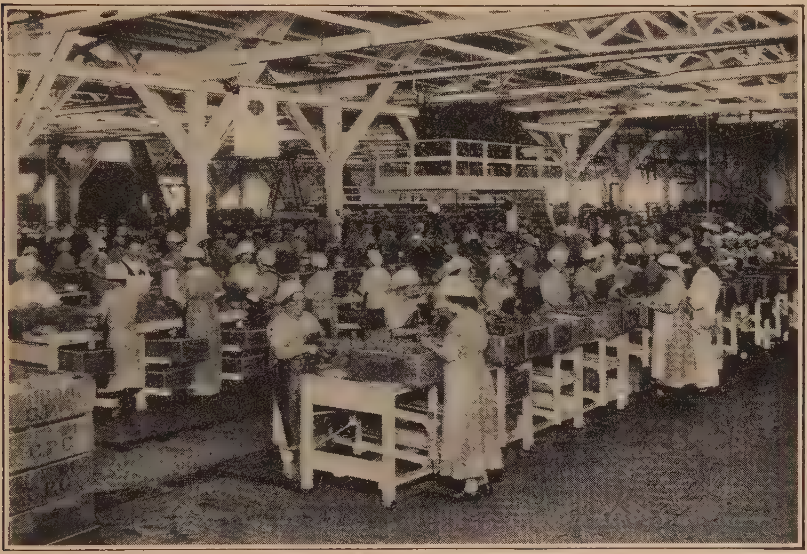

FIG. 199. This is but one department in a modern fruit-canning factory

In the long run, however, the "iron slaves" won, as they have always won since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution. After 1890 there was little opposition to the use of machinery, for the laborers saw that far from losing their employment because of the use of machinery, they were in greater demand than before because of the vast increase in the use of canned goods.

4. The craftsman became a tender of machines

For 250 years after the settlement of Jamestown, buildings were erected without the aid of machinery. In those days the carpenter was architect as well as craftsman. He built houses "according to his lights" with no training in architectural styles or principles. During colonial days the carpenter was a good architect, so good in fact that many modern trained architects have striven to reproduce the beauty and dignity and simplicity of line with which the architect-carpenters built.

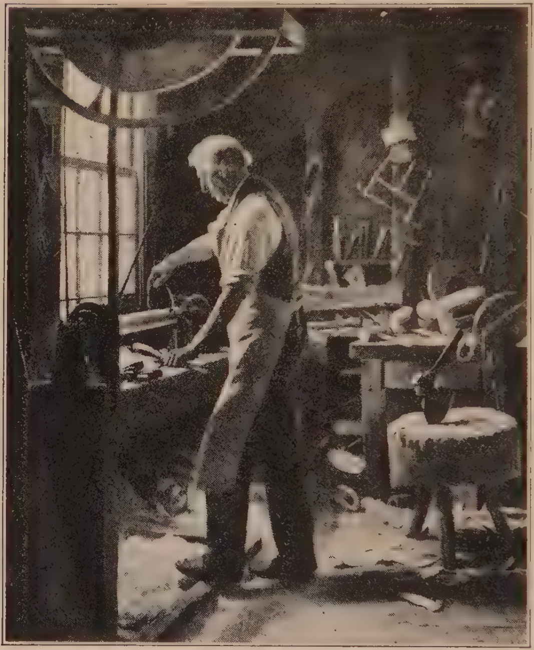
FIG. 200. In 1865 most carpentering was handwork. (Courtesy of the United States National Museum)

The carpenter regarded his tools as his assistants. He loved his saws, hammers, adzes, planes, chisels, and augers and kept them in fine condition. The trowel, the mortar box, the level, the plumb line, aided the muscles, the skilled hands, and the accurate eyes of the craftsmen. The bricklayer, the stone mason, and the carpenter worked together to construct the more imposing stone and brick buildings and dwellings in the towns and cities. They made the town halls, the courthouses, the post offices, and later the railway stations.

Most of the builders were natural craftsmen. The carpenter enjoyed making a well-fitted joint, building a spiral staircase, and designing rafters, roofs, and gables. Carefully and lovingly he handled his woods, delighting in the grain, which became smooth and satiny under his skillful planing and sandpapering. But his chief joy was cabinetmaking, and many beautiful chairs, tables, secretaries, and other furnishings have come down to us as proofs of his artistic skill.

As skillful as the carpenter-cabinetmaker were the mason and the bricklayer. The plumber too fitted his heating and sanitary appliances with a skill of which he was justly proud. The glazier, the paper-hanger, the plasterer — all coöperated with the other craftsmen to complete a building or a house, which was a source of great pride to all of them. During the building season these craftsmen of the 1800's worked long hours — nine to twelve hours a day. But to a good craftsman the joy of working with his hands and turning out a beautiful and lasting product was a part of the reward for labor.

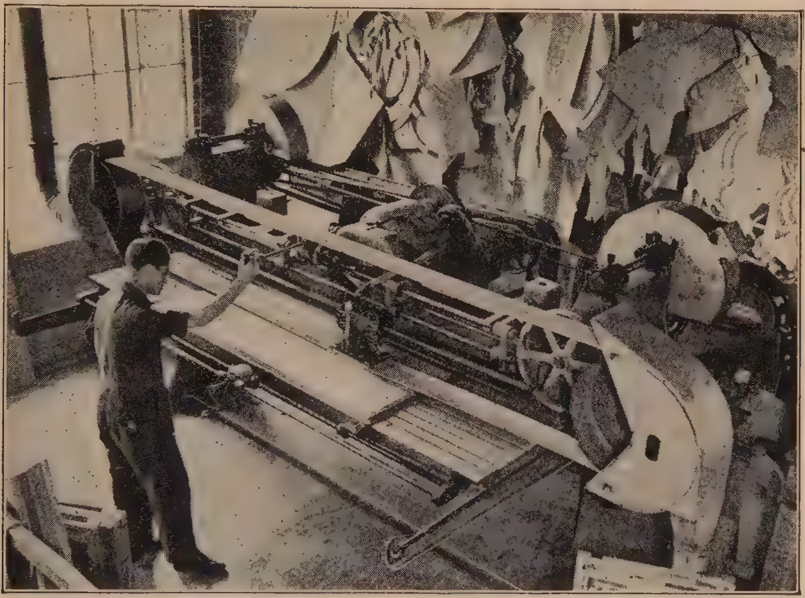

FIG. 201. The modern "machine-carpenter"

Then, increasingly, after 1880, machines came into the building trades. Within a generation the spirit of craftsmanship had nearly disappeared in America. In the carpentry trades mills were built in which power-driven saws, planes, drills, and boring tools decreased greatly the amount of handwork required of the carpenter. Companies were formed for manufacturing, in standard sizes, parts of the interiors of buildings, such as window frames, doors, and trimmings. As the splendid hardwood forests rapidly disappeared under the axes of the lumbering companies, cheaper soft woods were substituted for interior trimmings and for cheap furniture, all of which was made by the new machines.

FIG. 202. A skyscraper office building in New York City

FIG. 203. A skyscraper office building in Chicago, Illinois

So, also, the cabinetmaker had less and less opportunity to use his hands in turning, carving, and polishing cabinets and other articles of furniture. Cabinetmaking factories took the work out of the craftsmen's hands. Skilled cabinetmakers learned to run machines at a considerable saving of time and labor, and expert tool craftsmen became rare. Unfortunately, however, with the end of handicraft in furniture-making came a decline in the making of fine furniture in the United States. The new machines made standardized articles that were cheap but all alike and seldom so beautiful as handmade furniture.

Other important changes came in the building trades after the success of the Kelly-Bessemer steel process. Steel and concrete steadily replaced timber in heavy construction work. The study of civil engineering became very popular after 1800, and many technological schools and colleges were opened all over the country. As new and cheaper ways of making cement and concrete were devised the construction of concrete buildings added a new industry to the building trades. New kinds of machinery which required less craft and more speed were developing. Increasingly the demand was for cheap, standardized, large-scale concrete and steel construction.

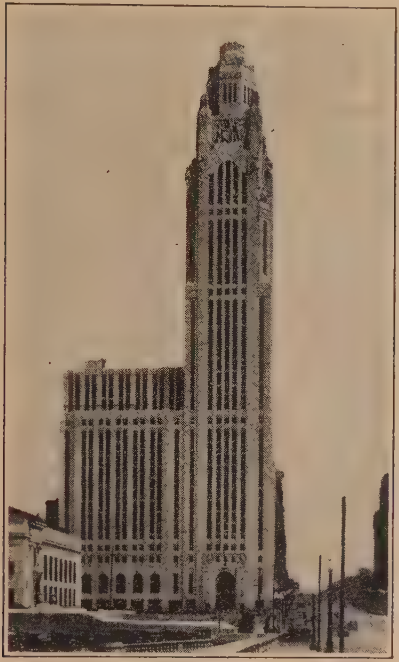

FIG. 204. A skyscraper office building in Columbus, Ohio

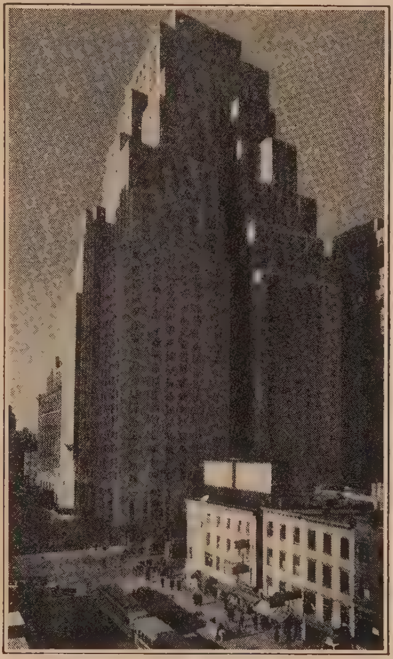

FIG. 205. A modern hotel skyscraper in New York City

Building companies were formed to do such special tasks as wrecking old structures, digging, excavating, dynamiting rock, transporting supplies, building concrete and steel foundations, erecting steel columns and girders, pouring concrete, and finishing interiors. Every step of the work came to be specialized.

New machines were devised to speed the work. For example, the concrete-mixer, which is run entirely by steam or electric power and is fed automatically by the movement of a lever, mixes together huge quantities of cement, stone, gravel, and water and deposits them in the form of concrete in the desired spot.

After 1880 the lifting machines grew stronger and larger. Stores, factories, and public buildings in the large cities were constructed about the great steel skeletons. Great steel girders and cement make the foundation of the building. Then steam and electrically driven derricks, cranes, and other lifting machines hoist the enormous girders and swing them into place, where they are riveted by an electric riveting machine.

As steel came to be used more and more for the skeletons of high buildings, it became possible to build higher and higher. By 1900 buildings of from ten to fifteen stories were no uncommon sight in the cities. Before the World War the 57-story Woolworth building in New York City was considered one of the marvels of the world.

Mass Production came as a Result of Dividing Labor and Standardizing Machines

You have already read how the invention of machines brought about the building of factories. As machines were invented and improved more and more factories were started. Many factories which had employed but few people before 1865 were enlarged, and many workers were needed to keep the new machines running. Hence people left their homes in increasing numbers, especially after 1865, and found work in factories.

As many new types of machines were invented and put to use factory work itself changed. As you have already learned in *An Introduction to American Civilization* labor became more and more specialized. The making of articles of clothing, furniture, building materials, vehicles, even of machines themselves, became a highly specialized affair, involving the use of many different machines. No one man could run all the machines necessary to make an article, so the labor was divided among many workmen. We speak of this change in the making of things as specialization

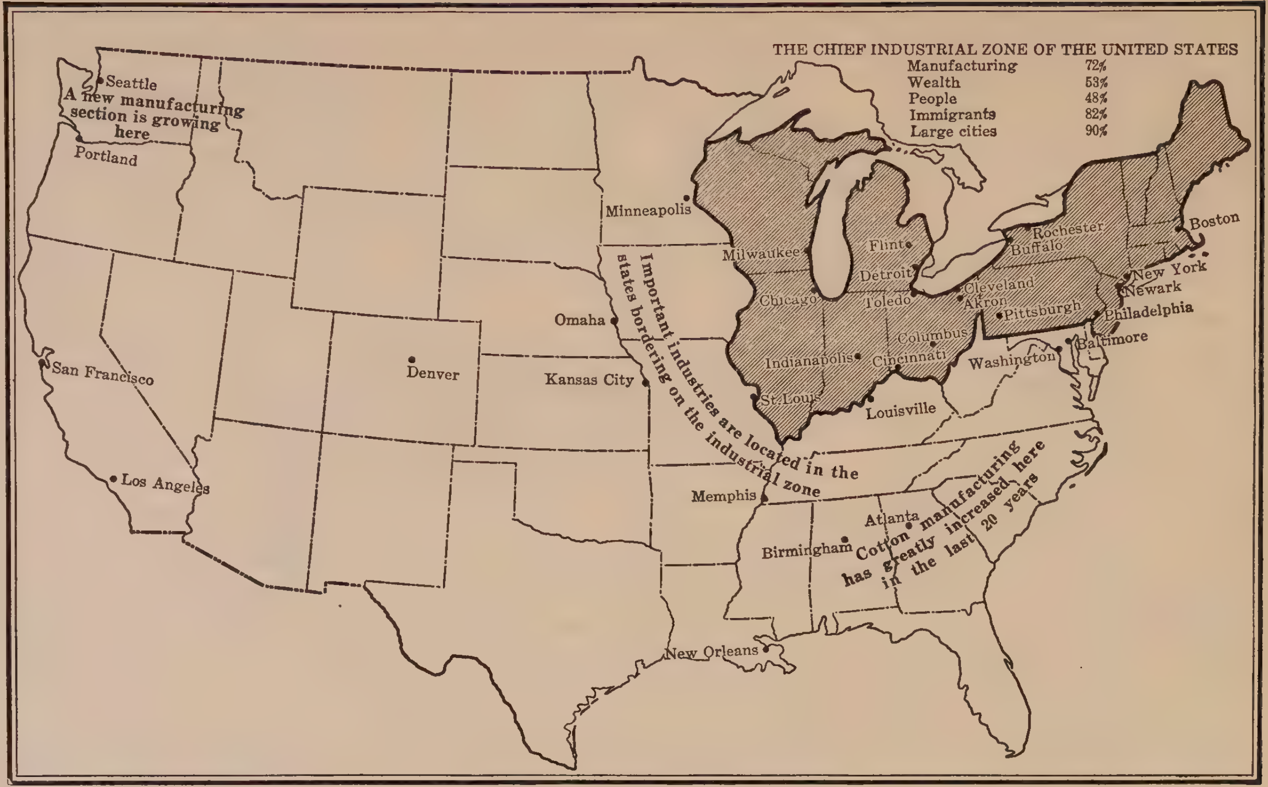
THE CHIEF INDUSTRIAL ZONE OF THE UNITED STATES
Manufacturing 72%
Wealth 53%
People 48%
Immigrants 82%
Large cities 90%
Seattle
A new manufacturing section is growing here
Portland
San Francisco
Los Angeles
Denver
Omaha
Kansas City
Minneapolis
Important industries are located in the states bordering on the industrial zone
Memphis
New Orleans
Birmingham
Atlanta
Cotton manufacturing has greatly increased here in the last 20 years
Milwaukee
Chicago
Flint
Detroit
Toledo
Indianapolis
St. Louis
Cincinnati
Columbus
Louisville
Cleveland
Akron
Pittsburgh
Buffalo
Rochester
Washington
Baltimore
Philadelphia
Newark
New York
Boston

FIG. 206. The chief industrial zone of the United States. By 1914 the industrial section of the United States had extended westward from the northern part of the Atlantic coastal plain until it included the area shaded on the map

of labor or division of labor. After 1865, especially, this division of labor increased in every industry and business.

Another important change was brought about in the new Industrial Revolution. Machines were standardized; that is, all the parts were made in uniform sizes and patterns. Every separate part of a lathe, an automobile, a sewing machine, a shoemaking machine, a typewriter, was made upon a special machine; hence every copy of each part was made of exactly the same size and pattern. Even the machines that made machines were standardized. Thus it was the standardizing of machines which made possible the extreme division of labor.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF INCREASING MASS PRODUCTION

The standardizing of machines and the division of labor worked together to increase production in all the growing industries of the country. Mass production became the demand of the new captains of industry. This increase in production is brought out clearly in the graphs of figures 207 to 209.

Note the amazing increase in the production of pig iron, especially after 1870 (figure 207). In 1870 less than 4,000,000 tons of pig iron were produced in a year; in 1910 the amount produced came to more than 27,000,000 tons.

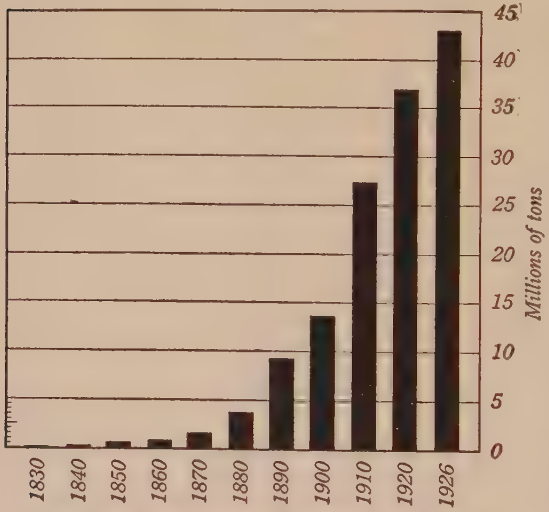

FIG. 207. Production of pig iron, 1830–1926

In 1860 the United States produced less iron and steel than any other industrial nation. In 1910 it produced more than one third of the world's total annual supply.

All products manufactured in the United States in 1860 were valued at a little more than $1,885,000,000. Those manufactured in 1910 were valued at more than $20,000,000,000.

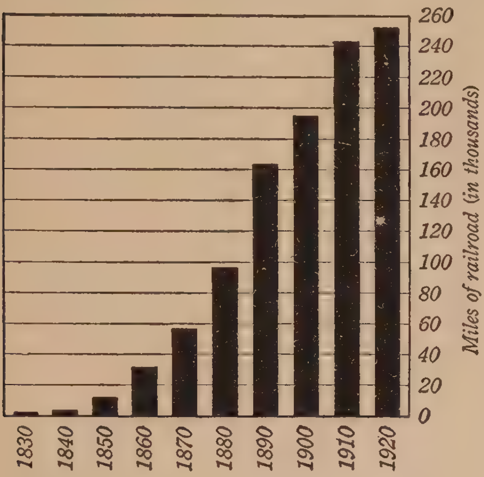

FIG. 208. Development of railroads in the United States

In 1870 there were only 12,500,000 wage-earners in American industries. In 1910 there were 38,167,000.

The new Industrial Revolution increased the size of our national transportation system correspondingly. Figure 208 reminds us that in 1860 there were approximately 30,000 miles of railroad in the United States. In 1910 there were almost eight times as many, or approximately 250,000 miles. The growth in automobiles was even more startling. As you already know, the perfection of the automobile came after 1890. In 1900 there were only 8000 cars; in 1915 there were more than 2,000,000 cars. (See figure 209.)

In 1860 agriculture was likewise changing, owing largely to the invention of agricultural machines. After 1865 the number of agricultural machines used on the farms of the United States grew steadily. The accompanying table tells what was happening in agriculture between 1860 and 1920. The value of farm implements and machines increased more than fourteen times between 1860 and 1920, and farm land increased nearly ten times. Between 1870 and 1920 farm crops increased about 10 times in value.

VALUE OF FARM IMPLEMENTS AND MACHINES	
1860 . . .	$246,000,000
1920 . . .	3,556,000,000
VALUE OF FARMS AND FARM PROPERTY	
1860 . . .	$7,980,000,000
1920 . . .	77,924,000,000
VALUE OF FARM CROPS	
1870 . . .	$1,958,000,000
1920 . . .	21,429,000,000

These statistics, uninteresting though they may be, tell a very important story of the industrial growth of the United States

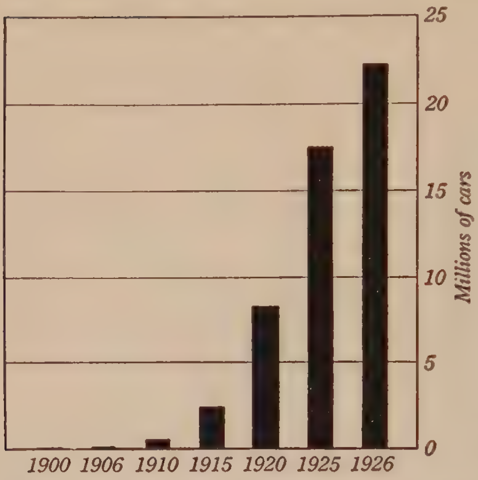

FIG. 209. Production of automobiles, 1900–1926

after 1865. They make real for us the meaning of the phrase "mass production," and they remind us that during those 50 years (1865–1914) *mass production* became the keynote of every industry in America.

Thus one sees clearly that although American industry was a small affair at the end of the Civil War, 50 years later it was a large-scale enterprise. Iron was mined and steel produced by the million tons; coal by the hundred million; oil by billions of gallons; cotton and woolen cloth by the million yards; lumber by billions of board feet.

TOWNS AND CITIES GREW RAPIDLY

The story of American cities and towns can be continued from where we left it in Chapters XVII and XVIII. As the growth of cities was continuous after 1914 we will study certain ones from 1865 to the present time. Probably it would be well to glance rapidly over Chapters XVII and XVIII again.

After the Civil War the large cities became still larger. New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore, New Orleans, St. Louis, San Francisco, — to name only a few, — drew people for one reason or another. Decade by decade the crowding went on — 1870, 1880, 1890, 1900, 1910, 1920. Notice how the following table sums up the growth of fifty years.

Why were these large cities growing so much larger during this Industrial Revolution? Chiefly because there were many kinds of work to be done in them. As the new inventions and discoveries multiplied, factories increased in number, and stores, business offices, and transportation lines offered work to many people. Because of the new "machine agriculture," fewer workers

APPROXIMATE POPULATION OF LARGE CITIES, 1870 AND 1920

	New York	Chicago	San Francisco	Philadelphia	Boston
1870	1,478,000	299,000	149,000	674,000	250,000
1920	5,620,000	2,702,000	507,000	1,824,000	748,000
	New Orleans	Detroit	St. Louis	Denver	Seattle
1870	191,000	79,000	311,000	4,800	1,100
1920	387,000	994,000	773,000	256,000	315,000
	Baltimore	Pittsburgh	Minneapolis	St. Paul	Los Angeles
1870	268,000	139,000	13,000	20,000	6,000
1920	734,000	588,000	381,000	235,000	577,000

were needed on the farm. Many farmers moved into the cities, where they could find work. Ambitious boys and girls left farms and villages to seek work in the cities. Immigrants arriving on our shores from Europe swelled the population of every city.[1]

There were other reasons, too, for the growth of the cities. In them the theater, sports, and other kinds of amusement and recreation were developing; social life was more attractive; fraternal and patriotic societies were being organized; hundreds of labor unions were being established. National and state organizations for the improvement of various aspects of American life were being formed, and their offices were in the larger cities.

Each of these organizations and institutions supplied work for people, and the fact that these people came to live in the city created, in turn, a need for other workers to supply them with food, clothing, houses, and transportation and to perform the services of doctors, lawyers, nurses, etc.

Schools were springing up in increasing numbers. Most of the colleges, technical schools, and universities were located in towns or cities, and each of these brought to its community many people who had to be housed, fed, clothed, transported, and otherwise cared for.

Thus the chief reason for the growth of cities after the Civil War was the rapid multiplication of different kinds of industrial and commercial work.

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[1] It might be well at this point to review Chapters XX, XXI, and XXII in *An Introduction to American Civilization.* See particularly figures 222 and 224 in that volume.

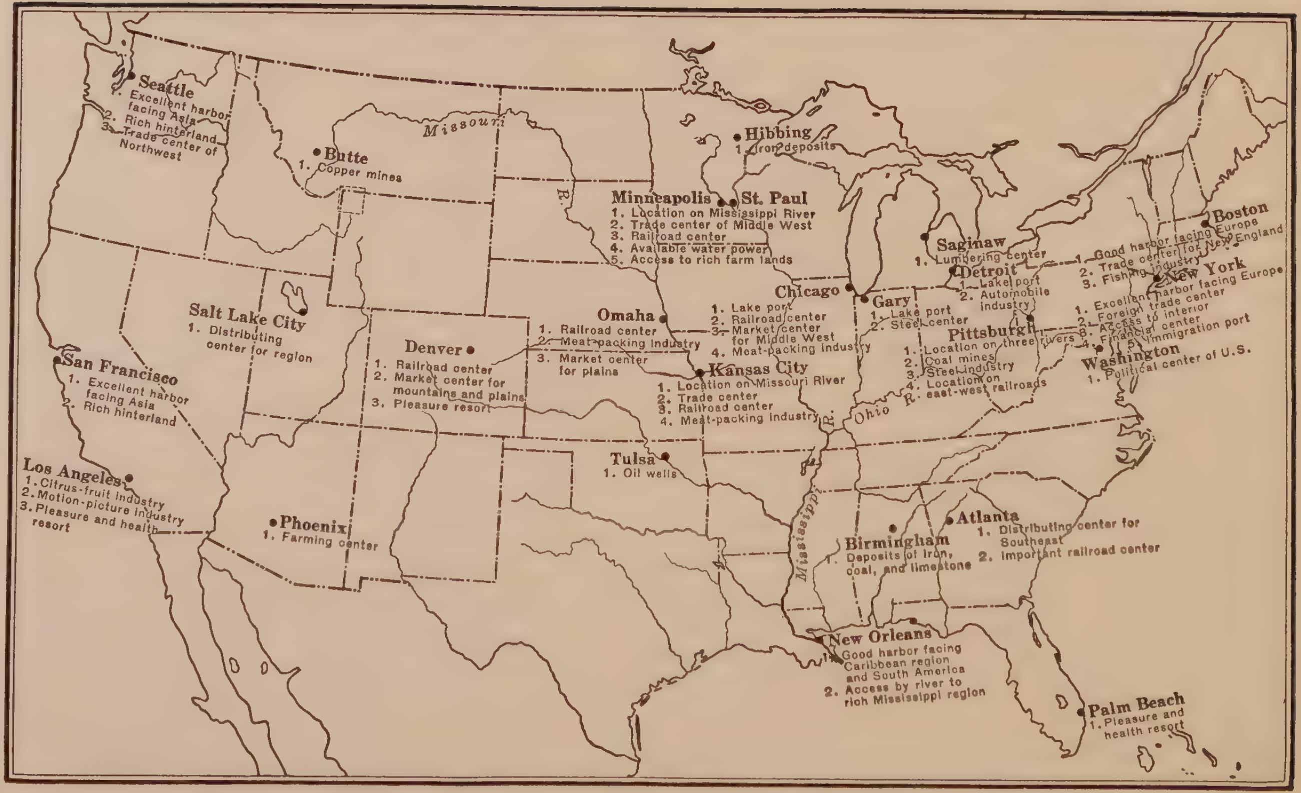
Seattle
1. Excellent harbor facing Asia
2. Rich hinterland
3. Trade center of Northwest
Butte
1. Copper mines
Missouri
R.
Hibbing
1. Iron deposits
Minneapolis
St. Paul
1. Location on Mississippi River
2. Trade center of Middle West
3. Railroad center
4. Available water power
5. Access to rich farm lands
Saginaw
1. Lumbering center
Detroit
1. Lake port
2. Automobile industry
Boston
1. Good harbor facing Europe
2. Trade center for New England
3. Fishing industry
New York
1. Excellent harbor facing Europe
2. Foreign trade center
3. Access to interior
4. Financial center
5. Immigration port
Washington
1. Political center of U.S.
Salt Lake City
1. Distributing center for region
San Francisco
1. Excellent harbor facing Asia
2. Rich hinterland
Denver
1. Railroad center
2. Market center for mountains and plains
3. Pleasure resort
Omaha
1. Railroad center
2. Meat-packing industry
3. Market center for plains
Chicago
1. Lake port
2. Railroad center
3. Market center for Middle West
4. Meat-packing industry
Gary
1. Lake port
2. Steel center
Pittsburgh
1. Location on three rivers
2. Coal mines
3. Steel industry
4. Location on east-west railroads
Kansas City
1. Location on Missouri River
2. Trade center
3. Railroad center
4. Meat-packing industry
Ohio R.
Los Angeles
1. Citrus-fruit industry
2. Motion-picture industry
3. Pleasure and health resort
Tulsa
1. Oil wells
Phoenix
1. Farming center
Mississippi
Atlanta
1. Distributing center for Southeast
2. Important railroad center
Birmingham
1. Deposits of iron, coal, and limestone
New Orleans
1. Good harbor facing Caribbean region and South America
2. Access by river to rich Mississippi region
Palm Beach
1. Pleasure and health resort

FIG. 210. Beneath the cities located on the map are listed one or more reasons why they developed

The new inventions and discoveries of this period of industrial expansion caused entirely new industries to spring up and further helped the growth of cities. After 1900 there were the automobile, the airplane, the radio, the electrical industries, and the industries having to do with by-products of coal and oil. Each invention brought not only its own big industry but a host of related ones. Many industries concentrated in particular centers. For example: until 1919 Troy, New York, produced 90 per cent of the men's collars and cuffs manufactured in the country; Philadelphia, a third of the carpets; Chicago did one fourth of the slaughtering and meat-packing; Providence, nearly a fourth of the silversmithing. In 1919 nearly three tenths of the inhabitants of Pittsburgh were employed in the steel industry. In many New England cities the majority of the workers are engaged in textile factories. In Lynn, Massachusetts, the outstanding industry is shoes.

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CHAPTER XXI

THE AGE OF THE CORPORATION

You have learned that the Civil War and the new Industrial Revolution which followed brought about changes in manufacturing. The captains of industry developed the processes of mass production. You know that mass production requires great amounts of capital.[1] How to get it? How to amass it in large quantities? How to concentrate it in a few hands? The industrial leaders learned these lessons in the period after the Civil War.

In 1860 nearly all kinds of business were conducted in a small way. Iron was manufactured by scores of little forges and small companies. Hundreds of lumber companies were cutting forests in the old Northwest Territory. There were thousands of oil-well owners. Many companies were manufacturing farming machines. Every growing town boasted its local factory, which turned out small quantities of tools, implements, yarn, cloth, garments, wagons, or whatever the region about it particularly needed.

Then came the Civil War with its startling examples of mass production, and the first lesson of our modern industrial development was learned. During the war the government raised several billion dollars and spent it on war industries essential to the efficiency of the armies. For the first time merchants and manufacturers saw that goods could be produced in vast quantities if machines could be used and sufficient capital could be raised. Furthermore, some of them learned the value of doing business on credit. They saw the Federal government borrow several billions of dollars. They saw new industrial enterprises growing on borrowed money. That was one of the important financial lessons of the war.

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[1] In *An Introduction to American Civilization*, Chapter XXVI, we have discussed capital and the formation of corporations.

Farseeing business men began to learn that there is *economy in making things on a large scale.* Gradually they saw that the secrets of mass production were standardization of manufacturing and division of labor. We have seen how the inventors and manufacturers discovered and applied these manufacturing secrets during the years of industrial expansion.

But that expansion could not have come had not the business leaders during the very same years discovered a financial secret, too. While the inventors brought about the wider use of standardized machines, *the financial leaders built up corporations* as a way of getting large amounts of capital.

THE CORPORATION — THE BUSINESS MAN'S DEVICE FOR RAISING LARGE AMOUNTS OF CAPITAL

In *An Introduction to American Civilization* you read the story of the growth of Henry Chase's little delivery business into the Chase and Mead Delivery Service, Inc. In that story you traced the chief steps by which a corporation is formed from a partnership or a small business. You read how Henry Chase and his friend Robert Mead became partners, raised capital by persuading people to buy shares of stock in their corporation, and thus enlarged their business.

That was generally the way in which thousands of little partnerships grew after 1860 into large corporations with vast amounts of capital. Every business was started in a small way by an individual or a group of partners who invested their own savings in a factory, mill, or store. As the business grew the partners invariably needed more money than they could raise either by taking in more partners or by borrowing from banks.

At that point they generally did what Henry Chase and Robert Mead did. They formed a corporation, sold stock, and borrowed money by issuing bonds. Thus increasing amounts of capital were raised. As the years went on they also bought out or joined with other companies carrying on the same kind of business. Bigger and bigger grew the capital of the companies. Larger and larger became the profits. Huge fortunes were made. The period was well named the age of Big Business!

Perhaps the best way to understand the tendencies and principles at work in this period is to study some examples. Space is lacking for many. We must be content with three which show (1) how corporations grew in spite of competition, (2) how allied industries were brought under the control of great corporations, (3) how financiers provided the capital that corporations might grow larger, and (4) how great concentration of capital in the hands of a few men was brought about.

CHAPTERS FROM THE STORY OF BIG BUSINESS

1. The Story of the Oil Industry
2. The Rise of the Steel Corporations
3. The Story of the Great Banks

I. THE STORY OF THE OIL INDUSTRY

The story of oil is dramatic, indeed. You remember "Colonel" E. L. Drake's lucky strike in Pennsylvania in 1859 and the oil boom that immediately sprang up. Thousands of people invested their savings in oil wells. Within a few years western Pennsylvania was the center of a new industry. Almost every

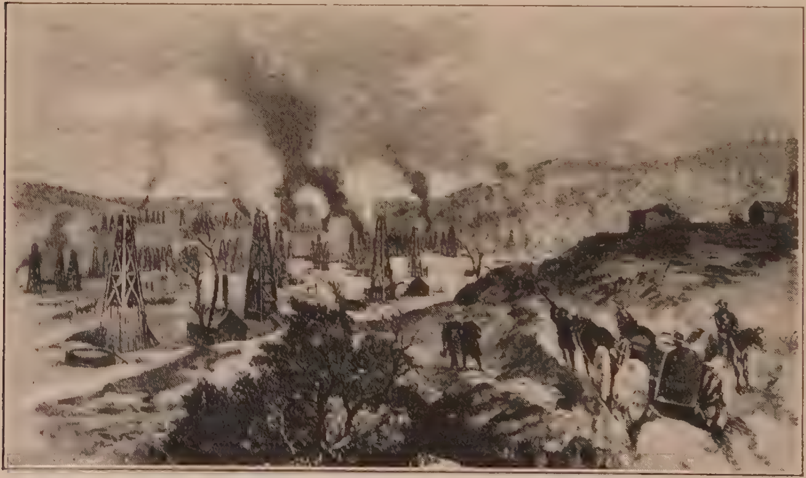

FIG. 211. Early days in Oil Creek valley, Pennsylvania. (From *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*, January 21, 1865)

acre of farm land had its oil well, and even farms that had been worthless were sold for $1000 a square foot.

The boom days soon passed, however, and before people could realize it the drilling and refining of oil was becoming one of the basic industries of the country. The refining[1] of crude oil, a process hitherto unknown, was studied by inventors and chemists and soon became an important business. Scores of small refining plants sprang up in the region between Pittsburgh and Cleveland. In 1865 there were no less than 50 separate plants, each one owned by an individual or by a small partnership.

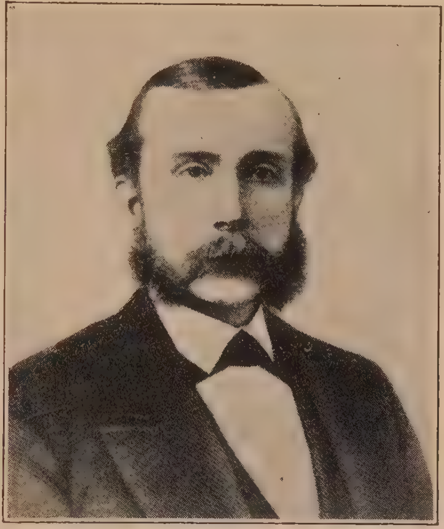

FIG. 212. John D. Rockefeller, about 1870

In 1858 John D. Rockefeller and a partner, M. B. Clark, had started a small produce commission business in Cleveland. "The venture succeeded. Local historians credit Clark and Rockefeller with doing a business of $450,000 the first year. The war [Civil War] came on and as neither partner went to the front they had full chance to take advantage of the opportunity for produce business that a great army gives."[2] In 1862 John D. Rockefeller entered the scene of the oil drama, and the curtain was raised on the *real* story of oil.

The firm of Clark and Rockefeller must have made money out of their commissions on war-food contracts because in 1862, the year after the war began, they invested $4000 in Samuel Andrew's new oil refinery. We do not know how much more they put into it, but historians assure us that within a few years Clark and Rockefeller had invested at least $100,000.

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[1] See *An Introduction to American Civilization*, Chapter IX, for an account of the refining of petroleum and the making of gasoline and other by-products.

[2] Ida M. Tarbell, *The History of the Standard Oil Company*, Vol. I, pp. 41–42. McClure, Phillips & Co., New York, 1904.

By 1865 the oil business had assumed a position of great importance in Cleveland. The town was booming, partly because of oil, and Mr. Rockefeller left the commission business and put his growing capital into the new firm of Rockefeller and Andrews.

The business grew, capital was borrowed, and new partners were taken in

Rockefeller dreamed of controlling the oil business. To grow, however, his business had to have more oil refineries, more oil wells — hence more capital. So he borrowed money and expanded the business. Stories are told of the great confidence which business men of that time had in Rockefeller and of his unusual success in building up his business on borrowed money.

In the next five years the business grew rapidly. The company was now known as Rockefeller, Andrews, and Flagler, and by January 1870 it was refining about one fifth of all the oil which was brought into Cleveland for that purpose.

It was in this year that the corporation was organized which is known around the world today as the Standard Oil Company. It had a capital stock of $1,000,000 — a large capital in those days! Only eight years before, Rockefeller and Andrews had invested $4000, which seemed a lot of money then. Rockefeller owned most of the stock and now controlled the first great oil corporation. His partners were his brother William Rockefeller, H. M. Flagler, Samuel Andrews, and S. V. Harkness.

For two years, 1870 to 1872, the new company enlarged its refineries and built up a reputation in Cleveland for being a company of shrewd, successful business men. The firm had made very large profits, larger than most of the other refining companies. In fact, many of the other companies were actually having a hard time.

At that time the competition for trade in refined oil was particularly keen. Twenty-six firms in Cleveland alone were bidding against each other for orders. Each refiner was trying to bid as low as possible; so of course the margin of profit was being cut down to a minimum. In spite of this, however, certain firms continued to make large profits.

For some time many of the other companies were puzzled to account for this state of affairs. They were convinced that they bought and manufactured crude oil about as cheaply as any company. How could other companies make such a margin of profit when *they* could not? They finally decided that it must be because those companies were paying cheaper freight rates.

They were correct.

Standard Oil and other corporations profited by rebates from the railroads

Transporting the oil over the railroads was one of the largest items of expense in the early days of the oil business. The oil refineries had to pay the railroads 40 cents for every barrel transported from the oil region to Cleveland. There was no other way to ship the oil; the cost of transporting it controlled the situation.

Just as there was competition for customers among the oil-producers, so there was competition among railroad companies. Each railroad was eager to keep the business of the large shippers. So to certain companies, among which was the Standard Oil Company, the railroads gave lower transportation rates than they did to other shippers. This meant, of course, that the companies paying the lowest rates could offer oil at the lowest prices and still make a profit. Ultimately such companies would drive the others out of business, and they did.

This practice of granting lower railroad rates to favored shippers was called giving rebates. In investigations afterwards held by Congress, it was proved with a great deal of evidence that the railroads *did* give rebates to favored shippers. The Standard Oil Company was by no means the only one favored.

> As competition grew between the roads, they grew more reckless in granting rebates, the refiners more insistent in demanding them. Things had come to such a pass in the business that every refiner suspected his neighbor to be getting better rates than he. The result was that the freight agents were constantly beset for rebates, and that the large shippers were generally getting them on the ground of the quantity of oil they controlled.[1]

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[1] Ida M. Tarbell, *The History of the Standard Oil Company*, Vol. I, p. 53. McClure, Phillips & Co., New York, 1904.

We must remember that in the days immediately following the Civil War, practices were permitted in business that today would not be tolerated. The railroad rebate was one of them. Today there are Federal laws prohibiting the giving of rebates.

Such discriminations as the railroad rebates helped to kill competition and to give a few corporations control over the industries of the country.

The rapid growth of the Standard Oil Company

Before the close of the year 1872 the Standard Oil Company controlled one third of the oil business of the United States. During three months of that year the company amalgamated with its own plants twenty other refineries. Mr. Rockefeller and his associates organized a great plan for concentrating into one company the business of supplying oil to the entire country. The accomplishment was little short of stupendous.

So the company grew at an amazing pace, until by 1878 it controlled 90 per cent of the refineries of the United States.

Profits were increased by owning pipe lines

Certain other oil companies, chief among which was the Tidewater Oil Company, tried to kill the advantage which the Standard Oil had gained by building pipe lines[1] which would carry oil over the mountains to the Atlantic coast, to Chicago, and other oil-using centers.

To be sure, this pipe-line enterprise could not have been brought about unless there had been millions of dollars of capital behind it. A corporation was needed to gather together the funds necessary to accomplish the task.

But Rockefeller's plan of producing and refining the country's oil had long before included provisions for taking transportation out of the hands of the railroads and controlling it privately. So the Standard Oil formed another pipe-line company, called the National Transit Company, with $5,000,000 of capital. Thus did the parent corporation, the Standard Oil Company, begin to set up related industries within its control.

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[1] See *An Introduction to American Civilization*, Chapter IX, for discussion of oil pipe lines.

Fig. 213. John D. Rockefeller in 1911

Fig. 214. Henry M. Flagler

Fig. 215. S. V. Harkness

Fig. 216. John D. Archbold

Some of the Men who played Important Parts in the Development of the Oil Industry

A struggle started between the Standard and the Tidewater pipe-line companies that lasted for four years. We cannot give here all the details of the fair and unfair methods of warfare used by these great corporations. Both sides were guilty of practices that would not be permitted by law today. In October, 1883, the Tidewater people yielded and accepted the Standard's offer that the rivals should merge and carry on the pipe-line business together. They then became allies, but Standard Oil really owned most of the business.

Capital grew and many sorts of related industries were taken into the company

In the early days the barrels in which the oil was transported were expensive and difficult to get. It is estimated that, at that time, a barrel added four cents to the cost of every gallon of oil. An even worse difficulty was that producers could not get their barrels back. The rival shippers seized barrels, claiming that "the need justified the deed."

So the great oil corporations, Standard among them, began making their own barrels, thereby saving the profit which had been made by the barrel-maker. They also decided to paint the barrels in such a way that they could not be confused with those belonging to other shippers. The Standard constructed a barrel works in Cleveland and was soon building "the holy blue barrels." These

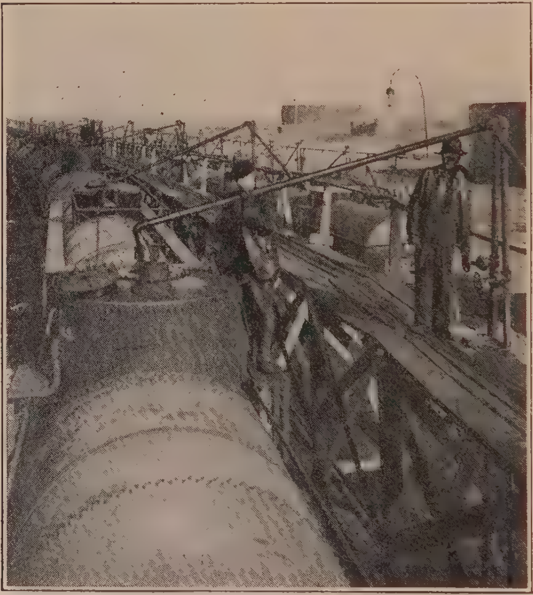


FIG. 217. Besides owning pipe lines the great oil corporations also own tank cars which transport oil

barrels added only two and a half cents a gallon to the cost of the oil in comparison with four cents under the old system. Other oil companies followed this lead and entered the barrel business, too.

More important, however, than the barrel in the oil industry today is the tin can. Tremendous quantities of oil are shipped to every part of the world in tin cans. In tin the refined oil is preserved and shipped in much better condition than in any other kind of container. The tin cans do not leak so readily as the barrels, nor is there much danger of their breaking. So the Standard Oil Company, to save money, set up its own tin-can factories.

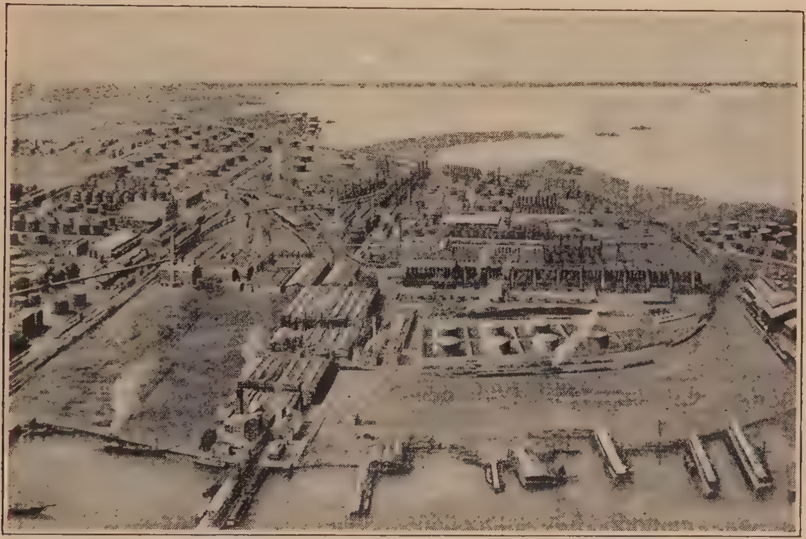


FIG. 218. An American oil-refining plant. Note the oil tanks, railroad tracks, docks and ships, and the many buildings owned by the corporation

Today the canning works of the Standard Oil Company are marvels of economy and efficiency. One expert workman can make a tin can in about the same time that one could walk from the point where the tin-coated steel sheets are unloaded to the point where the finished can is filled with oil. The improvements that have come in this one process alone illustrate well the economy and efficiency of the methods of Big Business. In 1865 one man and a boy working together could solder 850 tin cans in a day. By 1880, using improved machinery, three men could make 8000 tin cans in a day. By 1893 three men turned out 24,000 cans a day. Such improvements have continued to the present time.

Better selling methods were developed

While the Standard Oil Company was expanding in these ways, it was also building up an efficient, world-wide selling system. The country was divided into districts, and district agents were made responsible for selling as much oil as possible. Almost every village, town, and city of the United States was included in the territories of these agents. Shipments were received and delivered promptly. The Standard Oil branch refineries were made responsible for selling good, standard products.

In some instances keen competition with other companies was met by cutting down the price until the other companies were driven out. Then prices were raised to a level where the Standard Oil Company could make a profit. It was an immensely efficient organization, which in general served the public well, but it was an organization which was ruinous to most of its rivals.

Thus great economies were accomplished only through giant resources

Year by year the Standard Oil Company grew bigger and richer. Every economy which Rockefeller and his associates worked out added to the income of the corporation. Here is a table which shows how the cash resources grew between 1870, the date of incorporation, and 1895. In 1895 the entire wealth of the Standard Oil Company, including cash resources and all that helped to make its total capital, exceeded $238,000,000. In 1862 Rockefeller's investment in oil had been $4000!

Cash Resources of the Standard Oil Company, 1870–1895

1870	$1,000,000
1875	13,000,000
1881	45,000,000
1882	55,000,000
1895	150,000,000

Within the five years, from 1894 to 1898, the Standard Oil Company accounted for more than 80 per cent of the total oil production of the United States. Thus in the years between 1870 and 1898 a single corporation had succeeded in gaining control of most of the oil business of this vast country.

The Standard Oil men also became bankers and railroad-directors

In 1882 the company formed the first trust in the United States, the Standard Oil Trust. The resources of this great corporation were placed in the hands of nine trustees, who now controlled the largest body of capital ever assembled. They, like the steel men, the railroad men, and other industrialists, were amassing more capital than they could use in their own businesses. A way had to be found to invest it.

Some of the accumulated wealth was invested in their oil industry. But they had to find other ways of investing both their private fortunes and also the profits of the Standard Oil Company itself; so the Standard Oil men turned to other industries, among them banking and railroading.

In the 1890's the National City Bank of New York, under the presidency of James Stillman, became closely allied with the Standard Oil and its companies. Much of the investment business of the Standard Oil Company was done through that great banking firm.

Some of the trustees became interested in the railroads which were expanding during those years. The Rockefeller brothers were elected to the board of directors of the Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul Railroad. James Stillman and William Rockefeller became directors of the Union Pacific when that company was reorganized.

The history of Standard Oil illustrates the concentration of capital and related industries under one management

Such is the story of Standard Oil. From a partnership to a trust. From a small business to the most tremendous business which had ever been carried on. From a few thousand dollars to hundreds of millions. From a competitive partnership to a monopoly of America's oil business. From an oil business to a vast enterprise which included many factories, banks, and railroads.

The development of the Standard Oil Company illustrates two important ways in which industries developed after the Civil

War: (1) tremendous amounts of capital were concentrated under one management; (2) all related industries upon which the main industry depended were brought under one ownership and control.

By 1900 the Standard Oil Trust owned its own oil wells, gas wells, coal mines, pipe lines, barrel and tin-can factories, and many other industries. It controlled banks and helped direct railroads. Thus it brought under one management (1) raw materials, (2) factories, machines, and power resources, (3) transportation facilities, (4) banking facilities.

We shall see how the same steps were being taken in other industries to accumulate vast amounts of capital and widespread control.

II. The Rise of the Steel Corporations

In every important industry corporations were forming. In the steel business, for example, the ambitious leaders were duplicating Rockefeller's activities in oil. Small iron forges were becoming large steel mills. Small partnerships were growing into great corporations. Larger and larger amounts of capital were being amassed. The story of steel had only begun. Ever increasing amounts of steel were demanded in every industry as machines replaced hand labor.

Several companies led in this new business development. Since the United States Steel Corporation is the greatest of all, we shall glance briefly at the chief stages of its astonishing growth. The story of steel includes almost every chapter of the story of Big Business between the Civil War and the World War.

From a $5000 partnership to a billion-dollar corporation, 1858–1902

You remember from your study of Chapter XXVI in *An Introduction to American Civilization* how the United States Steel Corporation grew from the little iron business of the Kloman Brothers. The most important steps in the formation of this great corporation took place in only forty-four years.

The Kloman Brothers started their iron forge in 1858 and in 1859, even with the capital invested by a new partner, it was worth only $6600. The Civil War brought such huge demands for iron and steel that throughout the industrial zone this industry grew rapidly. By 1864 Kloman's company was worth $50,000. In that year, Andrew Carnegie, the man who was to become the most important leader in the manufacturing of steel in America joined the partners. Almost at once Carnegie became the genius of the company although he owned only a one-sixth interest. In 1865 Carnegie united the company with another iron firm in which he owned a large share. The new company was called the Union Iron Mills Company. By that time the capital had increased to nearly $300,000. Everywhere the demand for steel was increasing. Carnegie realized that by manufacturing his own pig iron instead of buying it, he could save money. By 1870 his company had erected blast furnaces in order to combine in a central corporation all things necessary to the making of steel. By 1874 some of the firm members of the Union Iron Company had formed a partnership with men owning stock in the railroads over which their iron ore, coal, and other materials were shipped. They also profited from railroad rebates as Rockefeller was doing.

In 1881 Carnegie combined all the related companies into one large concern known as Carnegie Brothers & Company, with a capital of $5,000,000.

Other iron and steel companies had grown, but Carnegie's company outstripped them all. It began to buy out rivals. It also brought together under one management other related industries such as coke companies and coal mines. Thus Carnegie Brothers & Company were no longer obliged to buy all their fuel from other firms. They were then manufacturing their own pig iron, using their own fuel to turn it into steel in their own refining plants, and shipping it over railroads in which they had an interest.

In 1892 there was another reorganization with a capital of $25,000,000. The same year the company then known as the Carnegie Steel Company bought a half interest in an iron mining company on Lake Superior. They also controlled oil and gas wells. They bought land, built docks, and equipped a fleet of boats on Lake Erie to carry ore from the iron fields in Minnesota.

In 1900, when the Carnegie Steel Company and the H. C. Frick Coke Company were combined to form the Carnegie Company, the capital of the new corporation was placed at the astonishing sum of $320,000,000.

But almost immediately still bigger things happened.

By 1900 Carnegie had decided to retire. He wanted to sell his business for $500,000,000. He was then a man 65 years old, and he longed to live the rest of his life more quietly. He had in mind plans for establishing libraries in all English-speaking countries and for founding institutions for research and education.

He wanted to sell his business for $500,000,000!

Of course it was no easy task for a corporation worth $500,000,000 to find a buyer. But Carnegie was accustomed to getting what he wanted. He tried to sell his giant corporation to J. Pierpont Morgan, the richest banker in the United States. Morgan was interested in several industries related to steel and the railroads, but he did not wish to buy Carnegie's enterprise.

At the same time a rival steel corporation called the Federal Steel Company was trying to get Morgan to merge his interests with their own. Elbert H. Gary, its ambitious president, was dreaming of a world steel industry. Gary took his plans to J. P. Morgan, but Morgan was no more willing to accept Gary's plans than he was those of Carnegie.

Finally, through the efforts of Charles M. Schwab, one of Carnegie's partners, Morgan decided to gamble on the merging of these corporations and those in which he was interested. He saw in the plan a way to build up a giant organization which would rival the best steel plants of England and Germany. As a result of this scheme, early in 1901 the United States Steel Corporation was formed with a capital of $1,404,000,000. Such a sum as that is almost unthinkable.

The center of the steel corporation was the Carnegie and the Federal companies, and Morgan built around it many related industries.

Today United States Steel is still expanding, and spending vast sums on new mills. It now owns mills in Alabama, Tennessee, Pennsylvania, Indiana, and Illinois. It is still buying out and merging smaller companies.

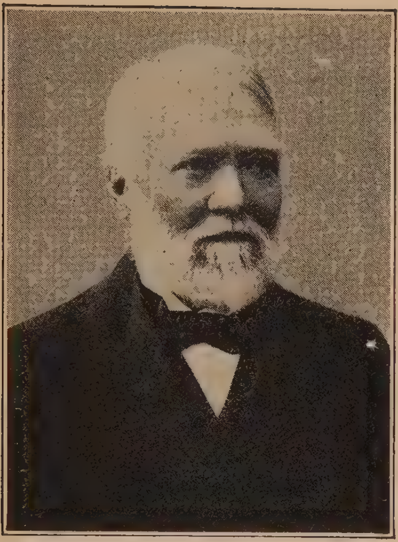


Fig. 219. Andrew Carnegie

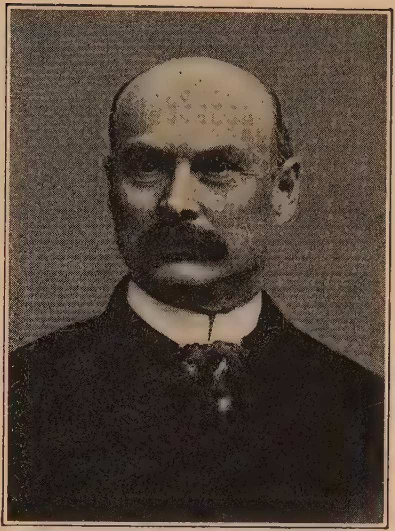
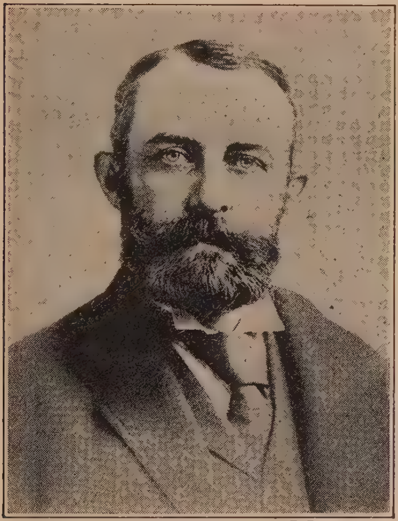


Fig. 220. Elbert H. Gary



© Brown Bros.

Fig. 221. Henry Clay Frick

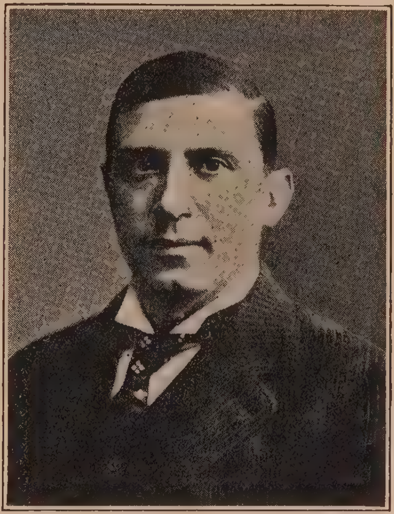


Fig. 222. Charles M. Schwab

Four Men who played Important Parts in the Development of the American Steel Industry

From photographs taken about 1900

Included in this corporation are

The Carnegie Steel Company
The American Bridge Company
The National Tube Company
The American Steel and Wire Company
The American Sheet and Tin Plate Company
The Federal Steel Company — a merging of seven steel, iron, steamship, coke, and railway companies
The American Steel and Iron Company of New Jersey
The Tennessee Coal, Iron and Railroad Company
The Universal Portland Cement Company, and
Iron companies in the Lake Superior region

While the United States Steel Corporation is still growing, there are several important rivals which are also expanding. The Bethlehem Steel Company, for example, is one of its chief rivals.

Thus the United States Steel Corporation is a second example of the bringing together under a single management of vast quantities of capital and many related industries.

In 1867 there were only three Bessemer plants in the United States. By 1900 the United States was leading the world in the production of steel and has been ever since. Today the rolling mills of the Pittsburgh district alone turn out one third of the world's steel.

III. The Story of the Great Banks

For our last example of Big Business we come to the large banking houses.

We have already seen how the Standard Oil interests were allied to the National City Bank of New York, and how the steel corporations came under the control of the powerful banking house of J. P. Morgan. These are but two of the great corporations which became connected with J. P. Morgan & Company. At the same time, in scores of other businesses, such as tobacco, sugar, meat-packing, leather, shoes, drugs, woolen and cotton goods, and agricultural machinery, great corporations were being formed. In every case where industries were merged the great banking houses of the country played a most important part.

Perhaps you will be astonished to learn that some of the great banking houses in the country began as little retail stores. J. P. Morgan & Company did. Kuhn, Loeb and Company did. The Seligmans did. Many others did.

Let us consider briefly, therefore, the story of the rise of one of the largest banking houses in the world — J. P. Morgan & Company. It begins with the story of George Peabody's little dry-goods store.

In the days before machinery the merchants were the only people who had large amounts of capital. You remember from your study of *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* that English cloth merchants became capitalists (that is to say, people who controlled wealth). So, also, in America the great cotton and cotton-cloth merchants accumulated capital.

In 1837, after 26 years of experience in the retail dry-goods business, a successful American merchant named George Peabody moved to London. Peabody had spent his life in establishing and managing dry-goods stores in New York City, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. When he went to London he intended to carry on his dry-goods business.

At first Peabody was a merchant. He bought and sold British and American manufactured goods. But he soon became a banker. It happened in this way.

Merchants and manufacturers on each side of the ocean often could not afford to wait for their money until their goods were freighted across the Atlantic and sold on the other side. So Peabody, having accumulated some wealth, started the practice of advancing the money to the manufacturers when they shipped the goods. Of course they had to pay him a certain percentage for this advance payment. In this way he began to accumulate very large sums. *His money made more money for him very rapidly.*

He also began to hold sums of money belonging to other people. This money he invested and in return received a certain percentage as interest. He paid interest, of course, to the people who had deposited their money in his hands, but he paid a lower rate of interest to them than he received when he invested the money. In this way he accumulated wealth even more rapidly than before.

It was not long before George Peabody was devoting himself almost altogether to investing and lending money. He formed a banking company of which he was the head. Their success was considered stupendous, and Peabody himself amassed a fortune of $20,000,000.

Later he became the greatest philanthropist of his time. He refused a title of nobility from Queen Victoria and died in 1869 in the possession of the thorough confidence of the English investing public. After his death a statue was set up in his honor in the London financial district, not far from the dingy little spot at Wanford Court where his office had been during his entire London business life.

In 1864 George Peabody retired from business, and his partner, another Yankee dry-goods merchant, Junius S. Morgan, took his place. When Peabody died the business changed its name from George Peabody and Company to J. S. Morgan & Company.

We must keep in mind that the business of these bankers was to supply capital to manufacturers and merchants who needed it. So they made money and, as history has proved over and over again, they made more money than those to whom they lent it.

John Pierpont Morgan (1837–1913) heads the Morgan company

The man who was to inherit the business of J. S. Morgan and Company was John Pierpont Morgan. John Pierpont, the son of J. S. Morgan, was a young man with an extraordinary talent for mathematics. He had been educated in the English High School in Boston and at the University of Göttingen, Germany. Although he cherished a desire to be a professor of mathematics, his practical father urged him to begin the career of a banker in the London offices of George Peabody and Company.

After a period of excellent training in the banking house J. P. Morgan advanced rapidly in the financial world. When he was 27 years old he entered into partnership with Charles H. Dabney to form the banking house of Dabney, Morgan and Company. This company was to a large extent the American office of the London firm of J. S. Morgan and Company. It lasted seven years.

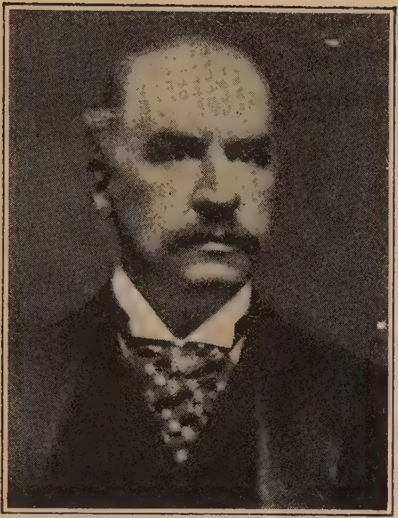


Fig. 223. John Pierpont Morgan

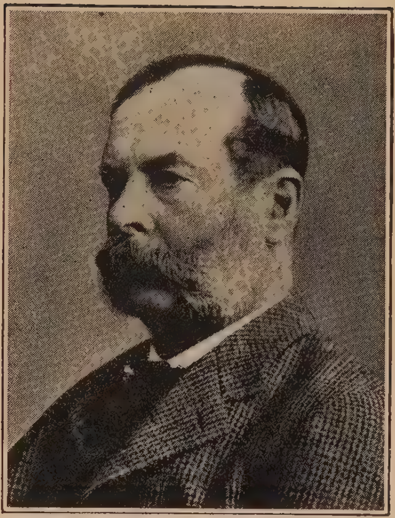


Fig. 224. George F. Baker

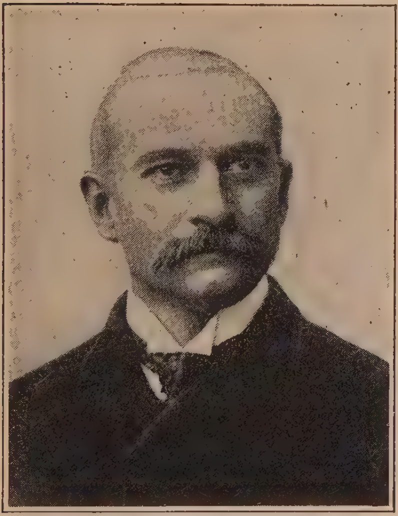


Fig. 225. James A. Stillman

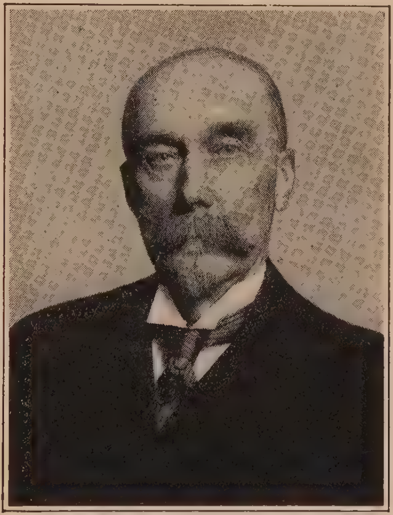


Fig. 226. A. Barton Hepburn

Four Men who played Important Parts in the Development of American Banking

Then in 1871 Morgan became partner in another banking house, Drexel, Morgan and Company.

Remember that in 1871 the Civil War had been over for only six years. Remember also that the war, *like all wars*, was fought on borrowed money. The Northern government had sold millions of dollars' worth of bonds, which had to be paid in a short time. There was no money in the United States Treasury to pay them, and the people had been so burdened with taxes already that they were in no mood to let Congress tax them further; so the government arranged to sell new bonds to pay off the old ones.

Drexel, Morgan and Company successfully sold to people in the United States and in Europe $300,000,000 of these new government bonds. This was a staggering sum for 1871, and the financial reputation of Drexel, Morgan and Company was established almost overnight.

About the same time, October, 1870, the London house of J. S. Morgan and Company also sold successfully in England about $50,000,000 worth of French government bonds in spite of the fact that France had just been defeated by Germany in the war of 1870.

Now, in these transactions the bankers made huge profits. It was believed that J. S. Morgan & Company in England realized a profit of $5,000,000, all within the space of a few months. It is not known how much Drexel, Morgan and Company made in selling the United States government bonds, but that sum must have reached into the millions, too.

As you have learned, the Morgan Company merged several companies to form the United States Steel Corporation. After 1880 it also merged several harvester companies and railroad companies.

The Morgan Company took over the control of one railroad after another. Morgan straightened out a bad financial tangle for W. H. Vanderbilt and his New York Central Railroad. He did the same for the Pennsylvania Railroad. When the Philadelphia and Reading faced bankruptcy, Morgan millions were put into it. The road was rebuilt and improved and soon began to make a profit. In 1887 Morgan supplied new capital for the

Baltimore & Ohio (the historic old B. & O.) and in the following year helped the Chesapeake and Ohio.

A larger venture, in 1888, led him to take over the entire Southern Railway System. Before 1893 he had made it a profitable concern.

Next, one after another, he reorganized the Erie, the Chesapeake and Ohio in the Middle West, and the Northern Pacific, with its thousands of miles of track. The Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fe and other great systems were aided by Morgan money, and Morgan representatives sat on their boards of directors. One of Morgan's close associates was a director in more than 50 railroad companies. Such a practice concentrated enormous financial influence in the hands of one banking house.

The Tendency to Concentrate the Money and Credit of the Country in a Few Corporations

J. P. Morgan & Company is but one of the many great American banking houses. During the same time that this company was extending its power over industry and business, other large banking houses were growing up. The National City Bank, for example, was established in New York in 1812. As time went on, its wealth increased. During the last twenty years it has established branches in many parts of the world.

These great financial houses and others gradually extended their control over industry until they became great powers in the modern industrial world. The steel, oil, railroad, and other corporations are, indeed, powerful. But after all the center of control lies in the *banks*, in the institutions which control money and credit.

In 1913 an investigating committee appointed by Congress showed what tremendous amounts of capital are controlled by a few leading banks in New York City. The deposits of the leading bank were then $163,000,000; the resources of another were $185,000,000; of a third, $274,000,000. Thus even if we leave out of account the large resources of which we do not know the figures, these banks had known resources beyond $622,000,000.

Furthermore, the officials of these three banking houses were important directors of seven other banks and thereby controlled additional money resources of $968,000,000. This amount added to the known resources (as noted before) of the three first-mentioned banks makes $1,600,000,000.

These were the total banking resources under the control or influence of three banking firms in the city of New York.

The report of the Committee, summarizing the *directorships held by the officials of the three banks*, says:

> It appears that firm members or directors of these institutions together hold:
>
> One hundred and eighteen directorships in 4 banks and 3 trust companies having total resources of $2,679,000,000 and total deposits of $1,983,000,000.
>
> Thirty directorships in 10 insurance companies having total assets of $2,293,000,000.
>
> One hundred and five directorships in 32 transportation systems having a total capitalization of $11,784,000,000 and a total mileage (excluding express companies and steamship lines) of 150,200.
>
> Sixty-three directorships in 24 producing and trading corporations having a total capitalization of $3,339,000,000.
>
> Twenty-five directorships in 12 public utility corporations having a total capitalization of $2,150,000,000.
>
> In all, 341 directorships in 85 corporations having aggregate resources or capitalization of $24,228,000,000.[1]

Do you see how the great banks came to play a very important part in the growing industries of the country? They not only controlled the capital of their own corporations but through their directorships they helped to manage and control the capital of many corporations.

ONE THREAD RUNS THROUGH ALL THE EXAMPLES — CONCENTRATION!

At the time of the Civil War, business was carried on in a small way. There were small iron foundries scattered over the country, small mills, small factories, short railroad lines. All these were under the control of different people competing with one another.

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[1] An adaptation from a government report as quoted in Leon C. Marshall's *Readings in Industrial Society* (The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1913), pp. 723–725.

Even railroads were owned by private individuals. One heard nothing of "combines." The first American trust, the Standard Oil Company, had not been formed.

Today all that is changed. You cannot pick up a newspaper, magazine, or government report without seeing items dealing with corporations. Our advertising billboards reflect corporations. Our breakfast foods and the grain from which they are manufactured are made, stored, sold, and brought to us by corporations. Papers of pins and automobiles alike are manufactured by corporations. Railroads, telephones, telegraphs, manufactured steel, oil and coal and all their by-products, preserved meat, cloth for our clothing, groceries from the chain stores — almost everything seems to depend upon the corporation.

The individual owner is playing a smaller and smaller part in the industry of the country. The bulk of manufacturing in the United States is being done by corporations. And these huge industries interlock through the control which finance, by way of the great banking houses, exerts upon them.

Truly, the captains of industry and the masters of capital changed our ways of living after 1865.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

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CHAPTER XXII

THE NEW SOUTH

THE RUINED CONDITION OF THE SOUTH AT THE CLOSE OF THE CIVIL WAR

What was happening in the South during this half-century of industrial and business growth in the North? Did the South, like the North, start on an era of great prosperity? Did it build great factories, new railroads, and crowded cities?

No, not immediately. Not for many years did industrial prosperity come to the South. The life awaiting the Southern soldiers at the close of the war was very different from that to which the Northern soldiers returned. Many of them found their homes in ruins and their farm land overgrown with weeds and shrubs. The railroads and the few factories were practically worn out. Trade was at a standstill.

An eminent Southerner, Mr. H. W. Grady, has described what the Confederate soldier found as he turned south from Appomattox in April, 1865: "He finds his house in ruins, his farm devastated, his slaves free, his stock killed, his barn empty, his trade destroyed, his money worthless . . . his comrades slain. . . . Crushed by defeat . . . without money, credit, employment." This was true in a large section of the South.

In the year following the close of the war both blacks and whites were close to starvation in many parts of the South. The greater part of the first year was required to plant new crops and harvest them. In the meantime tens of thousands of people lacked food. The United States government and the state legislatures helped by opening stores and by supplying food to the starving people.

It was indeed a disheartening situation which confronted the people when they turned to the reconstruction of their beloved Southland at the close of the war.

Serious difficulties caused by the freeing of the slaves

The freeing of the slaves affected every aspect of life — government, agriculture, industry, and social life. How it affected the reëstablishment of government we shall learn in the next volume. How it seriously hampered the rebuilding of plantations, farms, and manufacturing we shall consider now.

Both the black freedmen and their former white masters were seriously disturbed by the freeing of the slaves. For more than two centuries the Negroes in America had been given shelter, food, and clothing by their masters. Then suddenly everything was taken away from them. Their cabin homes, the cotton fields in which they worked, the farming implements and tools which they used — all belonged to their former masters. They must find jobs and work for wages or rent land and work for themselves.

Most of the former slaves did not know how to do these things. They thought that "freedom" meant that they now had the right to be idle. Most of them hoped that they would be given free land. It is true that at this time there were millions of acres of free land in the Central Plains which were being homesteaded by Northern white settlers. But the Negroes — without money and without the means of travel to the Western lands — were unable to take advantage of them.

The white plantation-owners and farmers also suffered by losing their slaves. They had always depended upon slave labor for their profits. Indeed, the wealthy plantation-owners had become rich principally because of the cheapness of slave labor. But that was gone. The planters were thus compelled to find laborers, and the freedmen were compelled to seek employers.

Furthermore, agriculture suffered because of the tendency of many of the Negro laborers to work only so much as was necessary to keep alive. Many of them rushed to the towns. Others wandered about the countryside, begging for food or sometimes stealing it. For those who worked, pay day was quite often succeeded by many days of idleness.

There were other difficulties. Most of the planters had no money with which to hire laborers and were forced to pay their workmen in food, shelter, and clothing as they had in the days of slavery, promising them money as soon as crops were gathered and sold.

Meanwhile Northern Officials made Matters Worse

We cannot consider here all the difficult problems of government which resulted from the war. We can merely mention the most important ones to remind ourselves that the task of rebuilding agriculture and industry was very difficult.

There was, for example, the question of bringing the Southern states back into the Union. There was the serious question of whether the Negroes should be permitted to vote. There were the immediate problems of carrying on the governments of the separate states and localities.

Of course the Northern states were in control and for twelve years, from 1865 to 1877, imposed their rule upon the South. Northern officials were sent south to take charge of affairs. Some of these were honest and sincerely tried to readjust matters fairly and humanely. Many, however, were dishonest and these succeeded for a time in seizing control of the government. Under them, Negroes and men who could not even read and write were illegally elected to offices in local and state governments. Large amounts of money were stolen from state treasuries. Contracts for railroad and road construction and other public works were voted to friends of these officials.

The years immediately following 1865 were times of great anxiety to whites and blacks alike in many parts of the South. The white Southerners finally rebelled against these practices. Secret societies were formed and spread all over the South, among them the well-known Ku-Klux Klan. We cannot tell here the entire story. It must be sufficient merely to note that the end of this period of Northern government came in 1877. By that time the white people of the South were gradually making their farming and industry profitable, and by 1880 faint beginnings of the New South were appearing.

MANY OF THE LARGE PLANTATIONS WERE DIVIDED INTO SMALLER FARMS

Many farms were cultivated by tenants

In 1860 the average Southern cotton plantation was 335 acres in extent. Forty years later it was only 138 acres.

These figures tell us of one change that came in cotton-growing. Many of the large plantation-owners could no longer afford to farm for themselves. They, therefore, divided their estates into small farms, some of which were sold outright. Others were rented or leased to tenants according to various plans.

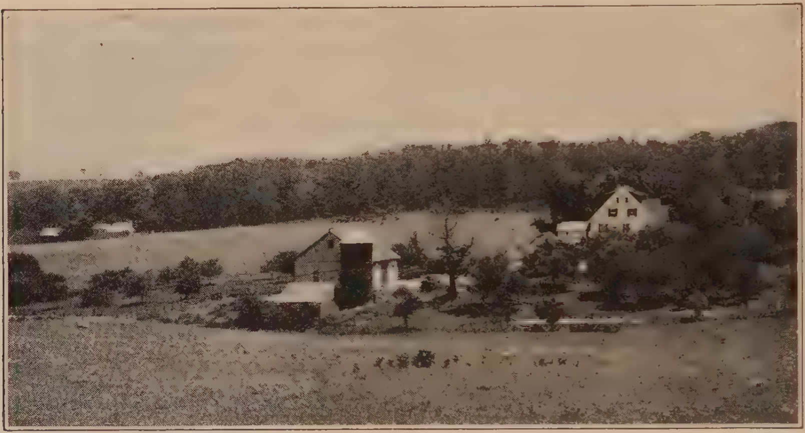

FIG. 227. A modern tenant farm in the South. (Courtesy of the United States Department of Agriculture)

By one of these plans the laborer-tenant divided his time between the landlord's land and his own. He cultivated several acres of land on his own account, and he might also work for the landowner four or five days a week for a small wage.

By a second plan the laborer worked for wages which were to be paid when the crops were sold. In the meantime food, shelter, and clothing were provided by the landlord.

By a third plan land was rented for a certain sum of money per acre. The rent money was paid either by a share in the crops or in cash when the crops were sold.

By a fourth plan land was rented to a tenant in accordance with a scheme that divided the profits as well as the risks between him and the landowner. Even to the present day this plan is still followed. The laborer's share, however, increased to one half of the profits. It is well to remember that this plan of share-tenancy was and is still followed in the Northern states as well as in the South.

As the years went on much of the land of the South as well as the North was farmed by tenants, some of whom were white and some Negro. In 1910 there were 866,000 white tenants in the South. These white farmers were cultivating approximately one fifth of the land. The average size of the farm of a white tenant was approximately 84 acres; that of a Negro, 40 acres.

Although more and more of the land of the South has come to be farmed by men who do not own it, approximately 50 per cent of all the farm land of the South is still worked by owners today. Only about one fourth of the Negro farmers own their land, while about three fifths of the white farmers are owners. Thus in 65 years only a relatively small proportion of Negroes have become farm-owners. Most of them are still working on the farms either for wages or as tenants.

THE SOUTHERN FARMERS FOUND IT DIFFICULT TO KEEP OUT OF DEBT

During the first fifteen years following the Civil War most of the farmers in the South found it difficult to make a living. Few of the whites and almost no Negroes had enough cash to support themselves and their families until their crops were gathered. In many communities, therefore, they were forced to purchase food and other supplies from the country storekeepers on credit.

The village and town merchants, therefore, really served as bankers for the farmers. They let the farmers have food, implements, seed, and other needed supplies, charging of course higher prices than if the farmers had paid in cash. When the crops were harvested the merchants purchased them from the farmers and took their payment from the sale. If the crops sold for a large enough sum of money to pay the farmer's debt and leave something over, he received a profit from the merchant-banker. If the sale of the crop did not clear the debt, the farmer had to go more deeply into debt in order to get new seed and new supplies for the coming season.

Under this system farmers throughout the South were plunged into debt. Most of them stayed there, never quite able to make ends meet. It is estimated that even recently nine tenths of the Southern farmers of certain regions were in debt. Wherever this is true the farmer, whether he be white or black, is still living in a kind of slavery.

In some instances plantation-owners themselves have acted as merchants and bankers. They keep stores of articles on hand to sell to their tenants. Sometimes they lend them money, thus acting also as bankers.

Steadily Agriculture and Trade revived

Many people still regarded cotton as king

The following table shows the production of cotton from 1860 to 1920. Note that by 1880 the production of cotton was more than 6,000,000 bales. Thus in twenty years the plantations of the South had recovered sufficiently to produce nearly twice as much cotton as at the beginning of the Civil War. From then on, decade by decade, the output of cotton increased. In 1910, near the close of the period which we are discussing, it produced more than 11,000,000 bales of cotton.

Bales of Cotton produced in the South, 1860-1920

1860	3,840,000
1870	4,024,000
1880	6,357,000
1890	8,562,000
1900	10,123,000
1910	11,609,000
1920	13,440,000

Let us not forget the most important reasons for the existence of this great cotton-producing section. One of these is the fertility of the land. From western Georgia across Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana to Texas stretches the famous American black-earth region. This region compares in fertility with the fertile regions in southern Russia and in the river plains of eastern China. On one very large plantation alone, there is soil that has produced 75 crops of cotton. This is the soil which made the cotton kingdom. This is the soil which made possible the agriculture of the New South.

There is another reason, namely, the increasing proportion of white workers on the farms in the South. In 1860 approximately 10 per cent of the cotton workers were white. By 1876, almost 40 per cent were white. With the increased use of white labor, methods of farming were improved and machinery came more and more into use. These and other factors brought about a marked increase in the amount of cotton raised per acre. The accompanying table shows that the production of cotton rose 50 pounds per acre in the 12 years after 1860.

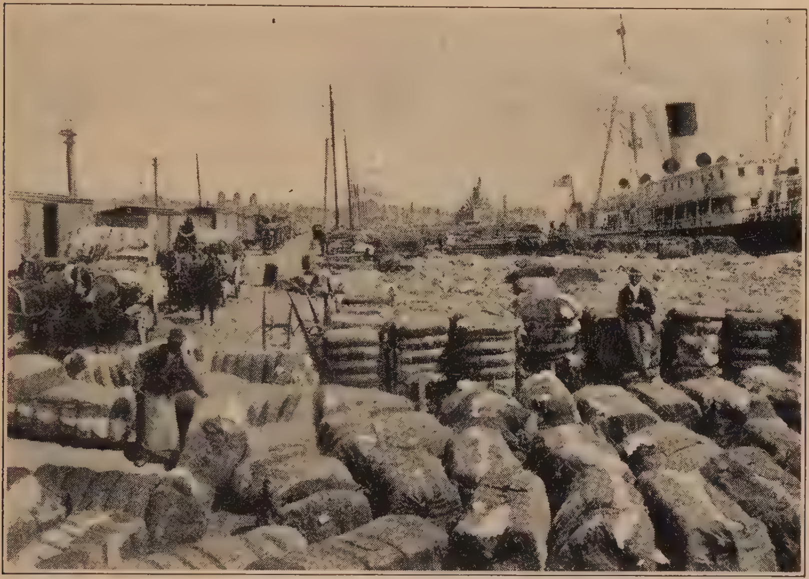

FIG. 228. After the Civil War increasing amounts of cotton continued to be grown and shipped to cotton-manufacturing centers. (Reproduced by permission of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum)

POUNDS OF COTTON RAISED PER ACRE	
1860	172
1872	222

Thus cotton continued to be the most important crop of the South. Conversation among small farmers as well as large planters centered about cotton. Many of the wholesale merchants and the bankers were also chiefly interested in cotton. On the cotton exchanges in all the largest cities where cotton is bought and sold great blackboards announced each day the latest world's statistics on the production and sale of cotton. Cotton, as one expert said, "kindles men's imagination and sweeps them into enthusiasm."

In 1910 it still constituted one fourth of the entire output of Southern agriculture.

As the cotton-planters gradually became prosperous the sizes of many plantations again increased. Plantations varied greatly in size, of course, ranging from small farms of 50 acres to vast estates of from 10,000 to 30,000 acres. Some owners still have as many as twenty plantations, each carried on separately. One large plantation near Greenville, Mississippi, extends eight and a half miles along the river. It is 12,000 acres in extent, 5000 of which are planted in cotton, hay, and corn. The rest is uncut timberland. There are several managers' homes on the estate and 23 miles of narrow-gauge railroad track.

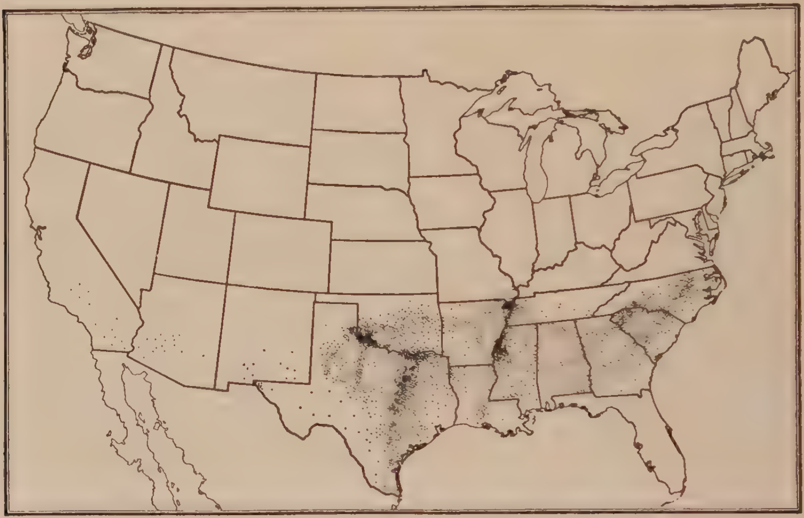

FIG. 229. Centers of cotton production in the United States

SOUTHERN FARMERS TURNED TO RAISING VARIED KINDS OF CROPS

As you have learned, the geographic conditions of the South made possible one of the three great cotton-producing regions of the world. (The other two are India and Egypt.)

But the "geography" of the South was also well adapted for other kinds of agriculture, and steadily after 1880 Southern farmers took advantage of that fact. They found that they had a soil on which corn could be grown almost as well as on that of the Northern corn belt. They saw that they could profitably use the less fertile areas for the grazing of cattle. As a result, cattle, sheep, and hog raising increased rapidly, until by 1910 it was estimated that there were 15,000,000 cattle, 6,000,000 sheep, and 15,000,000 hogs in the South. Other areas of Southern farm land were devoted to the raising of oats, wheat, hay, potatoes, and fruit. Truck and dairy farms began to flourish.

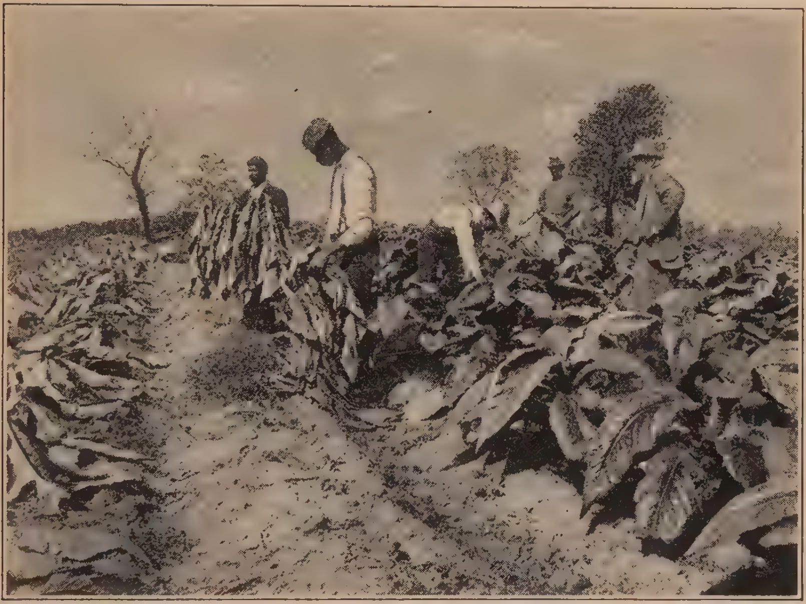

FIG. 230. After the Civil War tobacco-raising became a more important industry. The picture shows workers cutting the tobacco crop on a Virginia plantation. (Reproduced by permission of the Philadelphia Commercial Museum)

In the eastern states of the South, tobacco continued to be grown. Since the days of the Jamestown colony, over three centuries ago, tobacco has been an important crop. After 1880 tobacco was grown in Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, and Kentucky in increasing amounts. Today the ports about Hampton Roads send out each year more than $100,000,000 worth of that product.

But other specialized kinds of agriculture sprang up in the South. Semitropical fruits are grown in Florida and along the Gulf coastal plain. A large part of the nation's grape-fruit supply comes from there today.

A new kind of industry developed which was closely related to the growing of cotton. That was the treatment of cottonseed so as to secure from it several important by-products. Only a few years ago cotton plantations had either used the whole cottonseed as fertilizer or had thrown it away. Since nearly one third of the weight of the cotton is in the seed, this was extravagant waste.

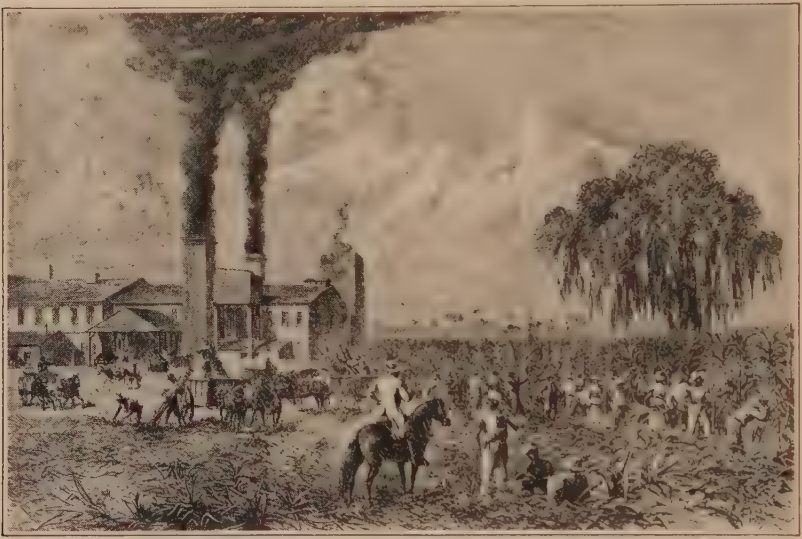

FIG. 231. By 1875 sugar plantations and sugar presses were scattered through Louisiana, and sugar cane became an important agricultural product in some of the Southern states. (From *Harper's Weekly*, October 30, 1875)

Scientists discovered that cottonseed can be separated into oil, and into other by-products which can be used as food for farm animals and as a fertilizer. By thus treating the cottonseed it has been possible to add more than a cent a pound to the value of cotton. In the single year 1906, for example, experts estimated that cottonseed alone was worth $90,000,000 to the South. This is a good example of the way in which the application of scientific knowledge adds to the nation's wealth. Furthermore, these new industries provided work for many people and aided in the development of the South.

Thus, in the years after 1880, the South steadily increased in agricultural prosperity. An editorial in a Southern newspaper said of the changing conditions: "Leaving her mines and her mills out of the question, the great South is rich in the produce of her fields alone. . . . She is self-contained, and, what is more, she is self-possessed, and she has set her face resolutely against the things that will hurt her."

New Industries began to develop in the South

Compared with the textile mills, small ironworks, and other kinds of factories of the North, those of the South before 1860 were small in size and few in number. It is estimated that in 1860 there were not more than 40 textile mills in the Southern states. In the spinning mills there were probably not more than 300,000 spindles, and the product turned out annually did not exceed $8,000,000.

During the four years of the war the Southern states were unable to buy goods abroad. They were forced to work their own mills and factories to the limit. Many of the machines were actually worn-out; others were destroyed by the Union soldiers; so that there were actually fewer manufacturing establishments in the South in 1870 than there were in 1860. The difficulties of reconstruction were so great after the war that until 1880 few new factories were established.

After that time cotton manufacturing developed rapidly, especially in North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama. In these states most of the mills were opened in the hill country rather than on the level lowlands, which were devoted to cotton and other crops. By 1900 the number of spindles in Southern spinning mills had more than doubled, and from that day to this the increase has continued.

At first it was difficult to persuade Southerners that manufacturing would be profitable in the South. By 1900, however, the building of mills had become almost a craze. Many of these were small, local affairs, owned by a considerable number of residents in the community. Frequently the stock was purchased on the installment plan. Cotton-planters purchased stock. Wholesale cotton dealers in the city purchased stock. The local bankers and merchants invested, and many workers put all their savings into the newly formed companies. The "planter South" was turning manufacturer. Soon New England cotton-manufacturers began to realize that yarn could be spun and cloth could be woven more cheaply in the South than they could in New England. There was the saving effected through eliminating the long freight shipments of cotton by water and by train. (Notice the distance between the North and the South in figure 232.) Then, employees could be secured in Southern mills at lower wages than was possible in the North; materials, fuel, power, and buildings were cheaper; taxes were lower; and the cost of living was less. Finally, much of the yarn and cloth could be sold in the South itself.

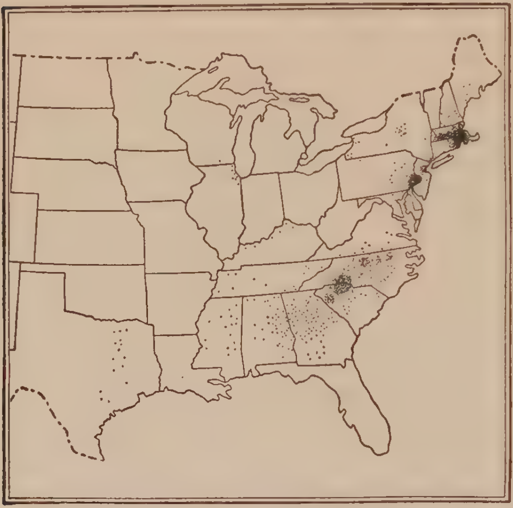

FIG. 232. Cotton mills in the United States

In the 1890's and the early 1900's Northern manufacturers began to build branch mills in North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama. By 1910 some were beginning to manufacture only fine yarns in the North and to depend altogether upon the Southern mills for the coarse yarns. In a few cases New England mills were forced to close, thereby causing considerable distress in New England communities. Several Northern manufacturing towns actually declined in population.

As this book is being written the movement of the textile industries toward the South is continuing more rapidly than ever. One medium-sized manufacturing city in Massachusetts has lost several thousand inhabitants in the past few years, owing to the closing of spinning and weaving mills. Either directly or indirectly this decline has been brought about by the development of cotton-manufacturing in the South.

In the meantime the cotton mills in the South have continued to increase until now they are more numerous than in the North. By 1925 nearly two thirds of all the spindles of the United States were in the Southern states. A larger proportion of the cotton of the United States is consumed in the South than in the North. North Carolina alone consumes annually more than 1,000,000 bales of cotton — more than any other state in the Union.

Massachusetts, however, still leads in the manufacturing of cotton products. North Carolina is second, South Carolina is third, Georgia is fourth, and Alabama is eighth.

Thus we see that the New South has become cotton-manufacturer as well as cotton-planter.

Many Other Manufacturing Industries developed in the South after 1880

It was not only in cotton that the South developed its new manufacturing. Factories sprang up in almost every basic industry — in iron and steel, coal, oil, and machinery.

You already know something of the development of the iron and steel industry in Alabama. Even as early as 1880 the production of iron had begun to be considerable. But in the next twenty years, as the adjoining table shows, it had increased sixfold. You have already read of the spectacular rise of Birmingham as a great iron and steel center, known today as the Pittsburgh of the South, and of the varied manufacturing industries which have sprung up around the iron and steel plants.

Production of Pig Iron in the South, 1880 and 1900

1880	397,000 tons
1900	2,500,000 tons

Large deposits of coal were located near the Alabama and Tennessee iron mines. Coal mines were opened, and mining developed rapidly. In one year, 1906, approximately 40,000,000 tons of coal were produced.

Not only was coal available for fuel to run the factories and railroads, but large amounts of water power and oil were also developed. Great hydroelectric plants were built here and in other parts of the South.

You already know something of the story of the discovery of the great oil fields. On the map, figure 183, note the location of the mid-continent field, more than half of which is in Oklahoma and Texas. Note also the large Gulf coast field, stretching from Louisiana along the coast of Texas and the Rio Grande. In recent years approximately half of the country's oil has been produced in the New South. We see, therefore, that the growth in manufacturing in the South is partly due to the increasing development of power resources.

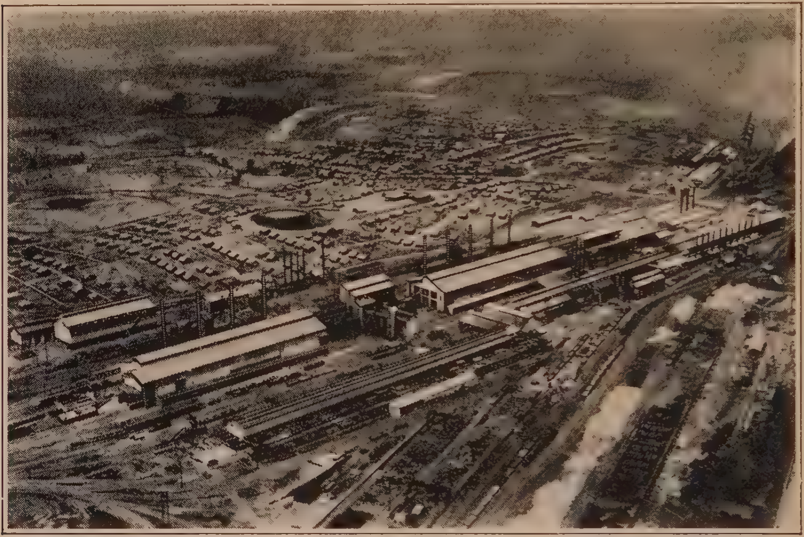

FIG. 233. A steel-making center in the New South. (Courtesy of the United States Steel Corporation)

Other industries are growing in the mining and preparation of sulphur, phosphates, and mica. The sulphur mines in Louisiana are becoming increasingly important, and North Carolina is now producing large amounts of mica.

Paralleling these manufacturing industries is the rapid growth in the lumbering industry. Except for the Northwest states on the Pacific coast no region in the United States possesses today so much timber as the South, which, it is estimated, accounts for one half of the total production of lumber in the country.

Great tracts of evergreen forests lie along the Atlantic plain and the Gulf coast plain. Huge forests of hardwood cover the Appalachian slopes. At last the poor landowners of the hill country have discovered a source of income, and the "piney woods" regions of Georgia and Alabama have become fairly prosperous. Timber has been cut in great quantities, and as the land is cleared cotton and other crops are planted. For 50 years (1870–1920) the South led in lumber production (figure 236).

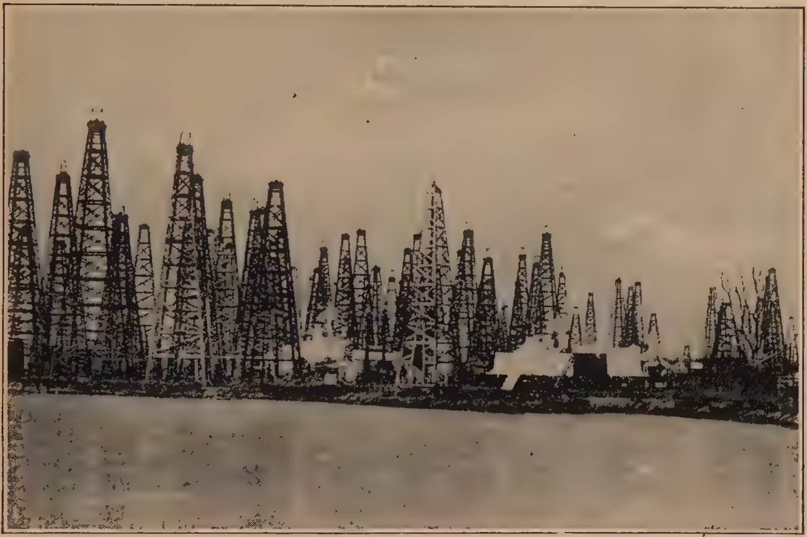

FIG. 234. A forest of oil derricks in the Southern petroleum field

Furthermore, with the lumbering industry has developed another important product of the forests of the South, namely, turpentine. This product is distilled from resin, which is collected from pine trees much as sap is collected from the maple trees of the Northern states.

Many new banks were started, and old ones increased in deposits and capital. Whereas formerly Southern planters and manufacturers did most of their banking through New York and other Northern cities, today much of it is done through their own local banks. Since 1875 the deposits in Southern banks have increased fortyfold — much more rapidly than in any other part of the United States. In 1923 the resources of Southern banks amounted to $8,500,000,000.

The value of Southern farm property in the nine Southern states increased 128 per cent between 1890 and 1910, but the capital invested in manufactures increased 279 per cent. The value of farm crops increased 102 per cent, but the value of manufactures increased 182 per cent. Thus we see that manufacturing increased much more rapidly than agriculture.

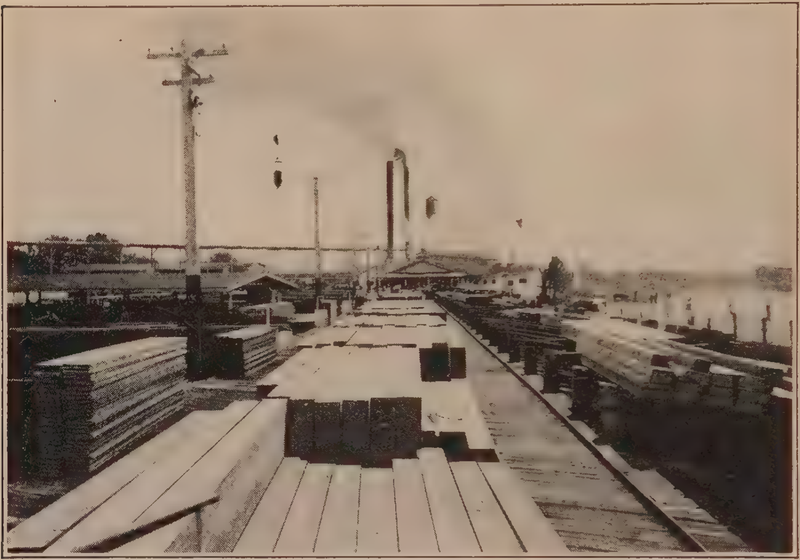

FIG. 235. Louisiana pine lumber ready for shipment. (Photograph by D. G. White. Courtesy of the United States Forest Service)

After the Civil War, the South developed better systems of transportation and communication. Along with the development of manufacturing industries has gone the building of railroads. At the beginning of the Civil War there were only 10,000 miles of railroad in the Southern states, and by the end of the war even these were in bad condition. Slowly during the next few years they were repaired, and after 1880 new tracks were laid down and old ones were improved. Northern bankers, under the leadership of J. P. Morgan & Company, reorganized the Southern railroad affairs and created large railroad systems. Among the best known are the Southern Railway, the Atlantic Coast Line, the Illinois Central, and the Southern Pacific. By 1910 the railroad mileage in the South east of the Mississippi had grown to 47,000 miles.

These important railroad systems helped to develop industries by making raw materials more easily available and by transporting manufactured goods to other markets.

At the same time other improvements were being made. Telegraphs and telephones spread all over the South. New roads were built. The states spent more and more money upon macadam and cement highways. The national government also aided the South in the construction of great national highways. The most important ones were the Dixie Highway, the Jefferson Highway, the Jackson Highway, the Old Spanish Trail, the Lee Highway, and the Atlantic Highway.[1]

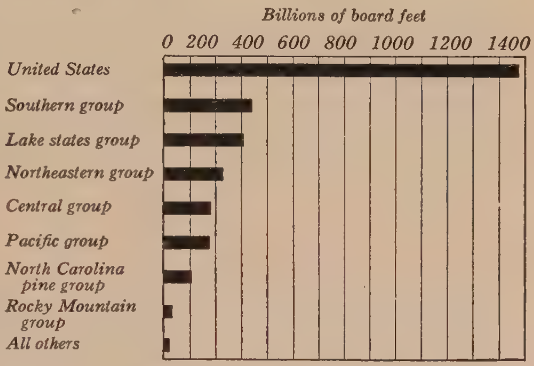

FIG. 236. Lumber production for 50 years (1870–1920) by geographic groups

In the meantime shipping grew steadily. The great north and south highway of the Mississippi River was dredged and straightened, and the United States government aided the states in building an extensive system of levees along its banks in an attempt to prevent the flood waters of the great river system from ruining fields, farms, and towns throughout the valley. New Orleans, Galveston, and Houston, as well as the Atlantic ports of Charleston, Norfolk, and Savannah, shipped increasing quantities of goods to Northern states and to Europe. In the years 1921 to 1923 the average annual value of foreign trade through Southern ports reached $1,775,000,000.

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[1] See *An Introduction to American Civilization*, p. 227.

In the New South Cities also grew rapidly

In the New South we find the same connection between manufacturing and growth of cities that we found in the development of the northeastern industrial zone.

In the Old South there were few cities, only such ports as Savannah, Charleston, New Orleans, and many small centers of trade for the planters — not of manufacturing. After 1880, however, when textile mills, ironworks, machine shops, and other manufacturing plants were established, cities grew up about them. A brief story of the growth of four Southern cities follows. Remember that these are but examples of the rapid growth of many cities in the South.

1. *Chattanooga, Tennessee.* Chattanooga was settled in 1817. It was then a tiny town, called Ross's Landing. In 1851 it was incorporated as a city under its present name. But a very small "city" it was, indeed, numbering about 2500 inhabitants in 1860.

In the 1870's large deposits of coal and iron were found near by. (Note on the map of figure 182 the location of the bituminous coal fields.) Soon factories were built there, and as various products began to be manufactured, the town began to grow.

Today Chattanooga has become one of the most important manufacturing cities in the New South. In 1927 it had 96,000 inhabitants, and 400 factories making more than 1300 different articles. Iron and steel castings, cast-iron pipes, fire hydrants, boilers, shovels, electric machinery, oil-well machinery, saw-mill and logging machinery, bricks, refrigerators, clay materials — these comprise only a few of the more important products manufactured in Chattanooga.

Growth of Population in Chattanooga, 1860-1927	
1860	2,545
1880	12,892
1900	30,154
1920	57,895
1927	96,000

2. *Memphis, Tennessee.* In 1819 Memphis was merely a site for a fort on the Mississippi River in territory that had been secured by Andrew Jackson in a treaty with the Chickasaw Indians. Eight years later a town was incorporated there, and cotton plantations were laid out.

By 1830 Memphis was becoming a center of cotton-growing;

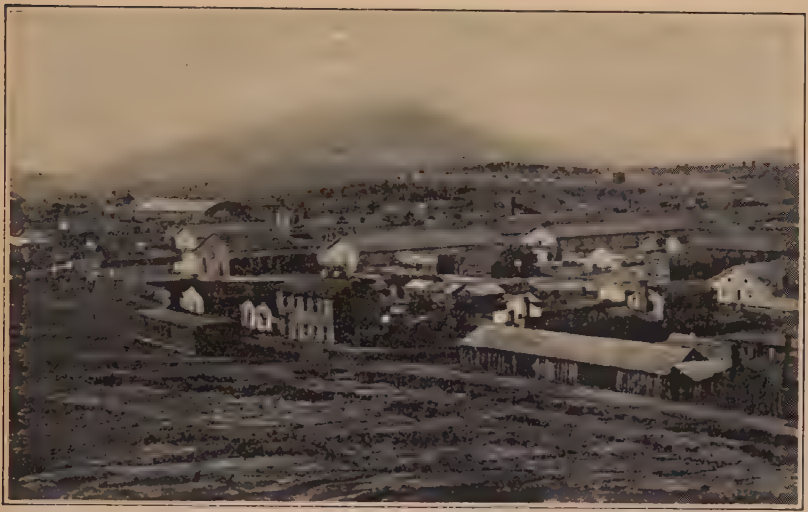

Fig. 237. Chattanooga in 1863. (Courtesy of the Chattanooga Chamber of Commerce)

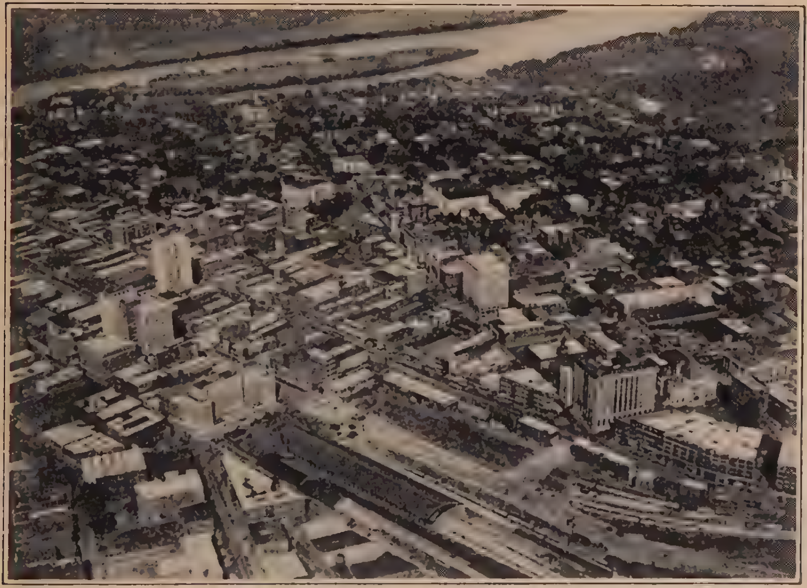

Fig. 238. Modern Chattanooga. (Fairchild Aërial Surveys, Inc.)

slowly the little town increased in size. In 1834 a steamboat line joined Memphis with New Orleans, and two years later construction was begun on a railroad.

Then, in 1849, it was chartered as a city. More railroad lines were built, joining it with the cities of the North, and by 1857 Memphis had railway connections also with Charleston, South Carolina. Railroads and steamboat traffic helped the trade of the surrounding region to increase, so that in 1860 Memphis had a population of 22,623.

Then came the Civil War. For three years during that time the city was occupied by Federal troops. Industry was at a standstill and trade declined; not until after 1870 did the city recover from this distress. By that time the railroads had been rebuilt, steamship traffic on the Mississippi had increased, and the city was growing.

During three separate years — 1873, 1878, and 1879 — terrible epidemics of yellow fever occurred, in which more than 8000 people died. Other thousands hurriedly left the city, and for several months in 1878 and 1879 all connections with the outside regions were discontinued.

Then engineers developed a new sanitary system. A sewerage system was built. Artesian wells were dug. Slowly the city recovered, and manufacturing industries began to be located there. Although in 1880 Memphis had dropped to a population of 33,000, by 1890 it was 64,495, in 1920 it was 162,000, and in 1928 it had reached 265,000.

The growth of Memphis illustrates well the influence of favorable location. It is situated on the Mississippi and connected with New Orleans and other large cities by steamboat lines, while large railroad trunk lines spread out to every important region of the United States.

Today it is the largest inland cotton market and the largest hardwood lumber market in the country. Like Chattanooga it has a great diversity of industry. In 1927 there were nearly 600 kinds of manufacturing establishments in the city.

3. *Atlanta, Georgia.* In 1821 the region about Atlanta was ceded to the state of Georgia by the Creek Indians. For more than twenty years from that time it was merely a little hamlet.

Then in 1836 the Western and Atlantic Railroad made the site its terminal point, and the village began slowly to grow.

In 1850 it had a population of 2500. When the Civil War broke out it numbered 9500. During the war factories were started for the production of military supplies. Then, in 1864, the Northern general, William Tecumseh Sherman, on his "march to the sea" captured the city and burned a large part of it.

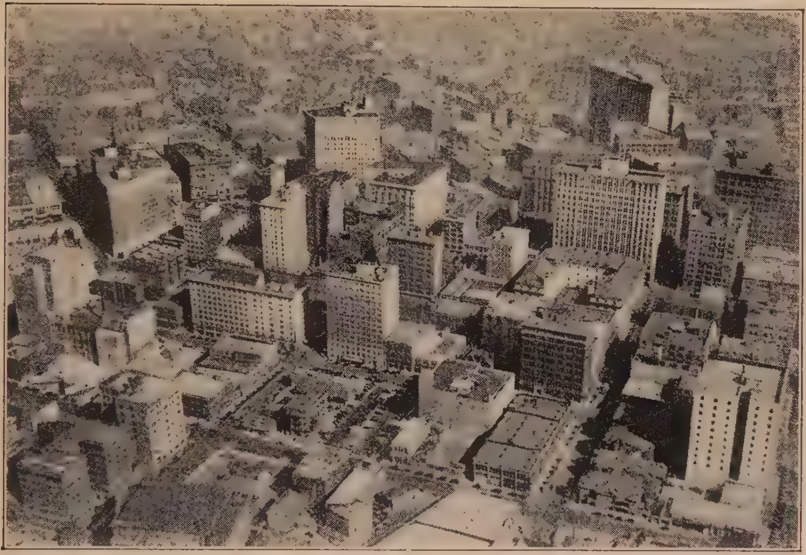

FIG. 239. A section of Atlanta, Georgia, today

With the close of the war, however, Atlanta was rebuilt and soon was made the capital of the state. Cotton expositions, which were held there in various years, helped to draw trade and industry to it. Railroads were built, joining it with other important centers of manufacturing and trade, and Atlanta soon became the largest city between Washington and New Orleans. Figure 239 shows one section of modern Atlanta.

GROWTH OF POPULATION IN ATLANTA, 1860–1926

1860 . . .	9,554
1900 . . .	89,872
1910 . . .	154,839
1920 . . .	200,616
1926 . . .	256,400

Banking as well as manufacturing developed rapidly, and the city became the financial capital of the Southeast. In 1925 there were 429 manufacturing establishments within the city and a large number near by outside the city limits, with a great diversity of manufactures — printing and publishing, cotton goods, furniture, agriculture, machinery, and implements of all sorts. It is estimated that more than 1500 different commodities are now manufactured there.

4. *Galveston, Texas.* In 1782 Spanish explorers discovered Galveston Bay, but for nearly a half-century the site was little more than a haven for pirates and buccaneers. Not until 1837 was the first settlement made by pioneers from the United States. Then the Republic of Texas was set up, and Galveston was incorporated as a town (1839).

The excellent harbor facilities slowly drew shipping to Galveston. As more and more Texas soil was planted with cotton, Galveston grew as a shipping port. Railroads were built, joining it with the northern regions, the Missouri Pacific, the Santa Fe, the Missouri, Kansas, and Texas, the Southern Pacific, and others. Steamship lines began to include Galveston as one of their ports of call. Flour and rice mills, sugar refineries, cottonseed-oil mills, were started. Manufacturing grew slowly, however, as cotton raising and shipping continued to be the center of the trading life of the city.

In 1900 Galveston was nearly destroyed by a hurricane and a great tidal wave which swept over much of the city. Five thousand people were killed and $17,000,000 worth of property destroyed. The city was soon rebuilt, however, its level was raised from one to fifteen feet, and the harbor was improved. An enormous sea wall was built for protection against future hurricanes.

Since 1900 Galveston has become the leading cotton-shipping port of the United States and a very important wheat port. The trade of the city increased 150 per cent between 1910 and 1925. The population is growing rapidly — from 44,000 in 1920 to 60,000 in 1928.

We lack space to refer to the many other growing cities in the New South. Those which we have considered in this and other chapters are typical of the changes that are taking place.

Summary

It is a New South, indeed, that is taking the place of the old cotton kingdom. It is a South of diversified industries, of growing manufactures, of foreign trade, of railroads, of oil production, and of large cities. Cotton is still the most important single product, but other products are beginning to assume an important part in the industry of the South. Today the South is indeed becoming much more self-contained, much more able to depend upon itself, than it was before 1860.

It still has serious economic and social problems, however. Farmers still have a hard time to earn a living. Planters still find it difficult to secure an adequate labor supply. Workers in the factories, in the iron and steel mills, and in the other industries are having a hard time to make wages equal the cost of living. White people and Negroes still have serious problems arising from their living side by side in the same region.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

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UNIT IX

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AND THE WORKER

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AND THE WORKER

Now we need to inquire how this new Industrial Revolution changed the lives of the laborers in the cities and of the people on the farms.

How did the new machine age affect the skilled mechanic? Were his hours of work longer or shorter than before the machine came? Were his wages larger or smaller? Were the conditions under which he worked healthier? Did he have to worry more or less about employment? Did the machines create more or less anxiety about food, shelter, and clothing? These are the questions we shall discuss in Chapter XXIII.

We shall ask what happened to the farmer in the age of Big Business. Was the farmer's life changed by the Industrial Revolution? Did he too become a tender of machines as the industrial worker had? Did he too learn how to organize for the improvement of his condition? Was his life more interesting? Did he have more recreations or was his life monotonous as in the days of homesteading?

CHAPTER XXIII

HOW THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION CHANGED THE LIFE OF THE WORKER

What happened to people as a result of industrial development?

Machines were making American business men prosperous. Great fortunes were being made by the railroad-builders, the oil and steel men, the harvester kings — by business and industrial leaders generally.

What about the machine-tenders, the weavers, the printers, the shoemakers, the carpenters, the clerks? Were they becoming prosperous, too? How did the spinning frames, power looms, printing presses, power stations, and other machines affect the workers?

How did the Industrial Revolution affect the Worker of 1800 to 1860?

In *An Introduction to American Civilization* you read that with the coming of the Industrial Revolution the lives of the working people in the cities were changed. You remember that many of the workers were forced to live in wretched tenements in the cities.

The wages which the poor people made were not sufficient to support wives and families; hence entire families, from the father and mother to young children of six and eight years, were forced to work for whatever the factory-owners cared to pay them. Imagine such children rising at four o'clock in the morning to be at the mill running their machines by five. Not until 1847 were there any laws in the country to forbid such shocking conditions.

The fathers and mothers were helpless to protect their families from the evils of the factory system. The workers had become tenders of machines and had lost the independence of the craftsmen. Since machines were able to do the work of human hands much more quickly and easily, work was accomplished by fewer people ; hence employment was scarce, and men, women, and children were unable to bargain for their rights. The workers were obliged to work in whatever kind of factories the manufacturers built. They were unable to work less than the number of hours the employers demanded. They could leave and go to another factory, you say? They could, to be sure, but conditions were much the same everywhere.

Workmen were not long in realizing that their one hope for bettering their conditions was to unite. They formed unions to demand shorter hours, better working conditions, and better home conditions. The first point for which they strove was the ten-hour working day. By 1840 they had succeeded in gaining that point in many places. No sooner did that happen, however, than they began to try to obtain still higher wages and still shorter hours.

Until the Civil War the struggle went on, with the workers now winning a point, now losing another. From time to time there were periods of "hard times" in the country, and the employers succeeded in gaining the upper hand. Then whenever conditions improved, the laborers won a little. Almost always, however, the employers had the advantage. Almost always the wages of the workers were insufficient to meet the increasing costs of living. Almost always slight improvements were won only by fighting and suffering. Always the conditions of many workers remained bad, even though improvements were made.

Thus we see that in the prosperous northeastern industrial zone, the lot of the laboring classes was hard, and the majority of them were condemned to a life of poverty and long hours of toil.

The effect of the Civil War and industrial expansion upon labor

The Civil War brought the laboring people into a position of much greater importance than ever before. For four years the government depended upon the workers in the Northern factories to provide the necessary supplies. As manufacturing flourished labor prospered. So it has always been. Labor unions prosper in good times and suffer in hard times. Even during war years, 1863 and 1864, many new unions were formed and old ones revived. In fact, it was during that time that several national organizations which are still in existence got their start. The chief aim of labor at that time was to secure better wages to keep up with the cost of living.

After 1865 came the great industrial expansion of which you have read, and the labor movement grew and prospered.

National unions were founded in 40 different trades. Between 1866 and 1872 several national labor congresses were held, at which many improvements in laborers' conditions were demanded. Some of these were the eight-hour day, the restriction of immigration from Europe, the formation of a national labor bureau in the Federal government, the establishment of mechanics' institutes, reading rooms, and coöperative stores for laborers and their families.

ONE BIG NATIONAL UNION OF SKILLED WORKERS FORMED IN 1881 — THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR

Finally, after years of effort and after numerous failures, the labor leaders of the country created a national organization which has lasted until this day. In 1881 most of the great national unions which had grown up during and since the Civil War were brought together into a permanent organization, later called the American Federation of Labor.

Unskilled workers were not admitted, but all skilled trades, with the exception of the four unions, or brotherhoods, of the railroad men, were included. The locomotive engineers, the conductors, the firemen, and the brakemen had their own separate national unions, which were also very powerful.

The federation profited by the mistakes of earlier organizations which had attempted to form a national labor society. It was organized as a large central body made up of many small independent bodies or local unions. The purpose of the central labor body was to protect and further the interests of laboring men in general. The local unions took charge of their own affairs and governed themselves in local matters. The authority for the laws of the federation usually came from the votes cast by the workers.

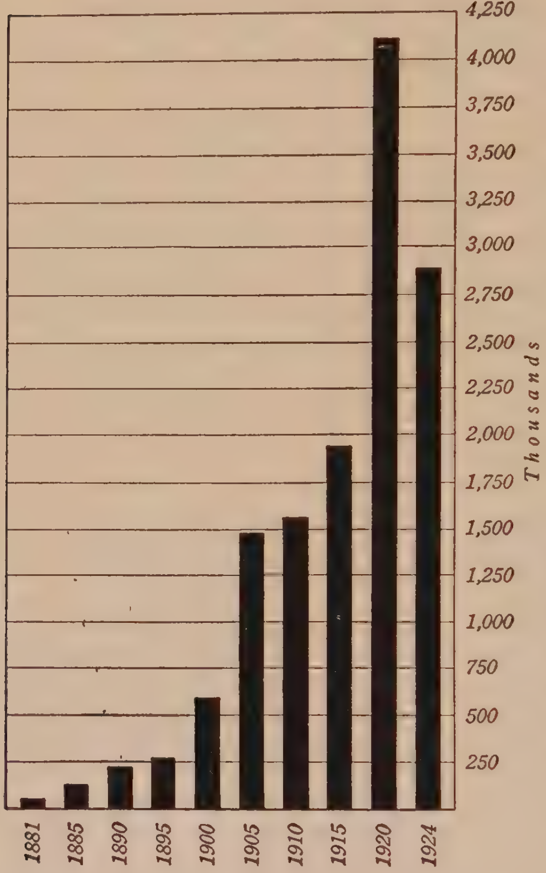

Fig. 240. The number of members in the American Federation of Labor from 1881 to 1924. (Courtesy of the American Federation of Labor)

Much of the success of the American Federation of Labor was due to the very able leadership of Samuel Gompers, who was president of the organization, except for one year, from the beginning until his death in 1924.

During the first years of its career, the federation grew slowly, but after 1900 it made rapid strides. Since then the membership of the body has risen and fallen somewhat according to the condition of business, but it has never ceased to be a powerful and effective agent for labor. Its membership from 1881 to 1924 is shown by figure 240.

The headquarters of the organization is now in Washington, D. C. The federation is not a political party, and it does not seek to use strikes or to promote revolutionary policies in labor. It merely seeks to secure for its members good wages, reasonable hours, and favorable working conditions. In recent years the federation opened its membership to unskilled as well as skilled trades.

In 1920 about one fifth of the wage-earners of the country were members of labor organizations. The proportion had doubled since 1910, when but about one tenth belonged to labor organizations. By 1923 there were 124 trades represented in the unions.

AFTER THE CIVIL WAR THE FIGHT FOR THE EIGHT-HOUR DAY WENT ON

No sooner was the ten-hour day won in most industries than the workers undertook to secure a further reduction in time. As early as 1842 the carpenters and caulkers in the Charlestown (Massachusetts) navy yard secured an eight-hour day. That was an exceptional instance, however, as they were working for the government and not for private owners.

The movement gained headway slowly at first, but during the 1890's and 1900's the shorter day was won by the workers in many of the trades. In some cases strikes and severe struggles were necessary to win the eight-hour day. In other instances careful organization of workers and the threat to strike were sufficient. In still other cases a few intelligent employers thought of giving it before it was asked. During all these struggles for the shorter day the legislatures began to pass laws to protect women and children from excessive hours. In 1867 Illinois, Missouri, and New York declared eight hours a day's work for women and children. In 1868 Congress gave employees on public work the eight-hour day.

© Keystone View Co.

FIG. 241. Samuel Gompers

Today practically all occupations have a working day of eight hours or less. In the larger cities clerical workers are now on a seven-hour to a seven-and-a-half-hour working day.

The Rapid Increase in Wages, 1850–1900; the Steady Decline since that Time

The workingmen were fighting for more than shorter hours of work. They were fighting also for higher wages and for more healthful and pleasant conditions of work. In short, they were fighting for a better standard of living — more leisure time in which to enjoy life, better food, larger and more attractive homes, better clothing, more education for themselves and their children, regular vacations, varied kinds of recreation. They wanted the things they saw their employers securing.

Working with them, helping them to secure these things, was the most astonishing combination of factors the world has ever known: (1) vast quantities of free land and tremendous natural resources, (2) location in a stimulating and productive climate, (3) the aid of thousands of new machines and engines, which multiplied man power and muscle power hundreds of times.

Thus from the first formation of labor unions, about 1800, the workers demanded increases in wages as well as shorter hours of work. The new machines were making it possible for the manufacturer, the merchant, and the banker to make vast profits. The workers saw the fine houses and carriages, the attractive clothing,— the higher standard of living,— which their employers were gaining as a result of the Industrial Revolution. As they came together in the cities and towns they discussed their problems. Year by year, in one trade after another, they formed unions and pressed their employers for higher wages.

Between 1833 and 1837 there were more than 160 strikes in the skilled trades. Three fourths of that number were either for an increase in wages or were protests against a cut in wages which had been declared by employers.

Steadily, year by year, as the strikes increased and as employers made more money from the new machine manufacturing, the wages of laborers were advanced. Prices of food, clothing, and other things also advanced, but on the whole the workers' wages bought more and more goods. Their condition slowly improved.

By 1850 the unions in the skilled trades had worked out a wage scale which they said was a living wage. If paid that much, they said, an artisan and his family could live. He would not live any too well, he would not have many comforts and luxuries, but at least he could *live*. That was more than could be said of the workers in England at that time or of many of the workers in America.

Then came the Civil War with a tremendous need for manufactured goods. Old factories were enlarged; new ones sprang up all over the Northeastern states to meet the demands of the armies for clothing, food, weapons, ammunition, locomotives, railroad rails, and other necessities of warfare. Workers in the skilled trades were in far greater demand than ever before in America. Employers were making huge profits, and fortunes were being accumulated. The wages of laborers rapidly increased.

Prices increased, however, even more rapidly, and for a time the wages of the workers failed to keep pace with the cost of living. Then, after the war was over, the workers joined together in organizations, about which you have already learned. These organizations constantly demanded greater wages as well as shorter hours of work and better working conditions.

Between 1850 and 1900, for the first time in the history of the world, the common man — the average worker — raised by leaps and bounds the standard of his material living. For the first time the rank and file of workers obtained a fairly decent livelihood. Their working day dropped from one of twelve to fourteen hours to one of eight or nine hours. Their wages increased out of all proportion to what they formerly had been. The purchasing power of wages — what they would buy — increased rapidly.

In this period of 50 years, therefore, the living conditions of the great body of American laborers improved rapidly. They lived in larger, more sanitary, more attractive houses. Their houses were equipped with modern and sanitary conveniences. The majority of American homes in this period came to have set bathtubs, hot and cold water, and permanent artificial light. Under the conditions of mass production and rising wages, it became possible for the great majority of workers to have better and more attractive furniture. Modern heating appliances were introduced, saving labor and protecting homes better against the weather. Quality and styles of clothing also improved markedly.

It became possible for the laborer and his family to have a little more leisure, and there was a little money with which to enjoy it. It was in this period also that the American school system grew up with universal elementary education for all. The number of children staying on through high school grew rapidly, and even by 1900 tens of thousands of youth from the artisan-mechanic-farmer class were going to college and to professional schools. This half-century from 1850 to 1900 was indeed the most important single period in the economic advance of the common man.

It is important to remember, of course, that throughout the period there were hundreds of thousands of people, especially the unskilled laborers of industry, who were able to obtain only a bare living. Loss of time from work and expense caused by sickness or accidents were disastrous to them. For these people life was mere existence — long hours of labor, little leisure, and constant anxiety as to how to make ends meet.

After 1890 two factors tended to make conditions of the worker worse

After 1890 the worker's standard of living was still high, but his wages failed to increase as rapidly as the prices which he had to pay for his food, shelter, clothing, education, and recreation. Hence the purchasing power of his wages began to decline. The explanation for this is exceedingly difficult to understand. Such problems you will study carefully in later years of the high school. At this time we can merely hint at the explanation.

Two factors more than all others probably kept the laborers' wages down: first, the steady disappearance of free land in the West; second, the hordes of immigrant laborers brought into the United States from Europe.

You know now the story of the westward movement and the claiming of the free land of the country. You know that decade after decade adventurous Americans went West, staked out homesteads, farms, ranches, mines, railroads, and townships. And you know that by 1890 there was practically no free land left.

What was the connection between that and the amount of wages paid to laborers in industry? Again it is not an easy problem to understand, but it is an important one. Remember that, until the later 1800's, laborers in Eastern factories who did not like the wages they were receiving could pack their belongings into a wagon, go West, and stake out a farm. Throughout more than a century millions of Easterners did that very thing. This had a direct influence upon industries in the East. It kept the number of workers down, and hence employers were compelled to pay higher wages.

But when the free or cheap land was gone, the price of farm land in the West rose. Through the 1870's, the 1880's, and the 1890's, it became more and more difficult for a discontented laborer to leave his job. He was compelled to accept the wages which his employer was willing to pay. This fact also helps to explain why the membership of labor unions increased so rapidly after 1900. The workers could thus better protect themselves from the more powerful employers.

But even more important than the disappearance of free land in the West was the influence of immigration upon the wages of the American workingman.

Even from the early 1800's employers had used cheap laborers in their factories, for example, child apprentices. Often when strikes were threatened employers lured boy apprentices. These apprentices would work at half or less than half the wages which the grown-up mechanics were receiving. Hence in the years before the Civil War one of the constant demands of labor unions was the reduction of the number of young apprentices. That problem was fairly well solved by the time of the Civil War, however.

In the meantime the unions were compelled to fight the employers who brought in strike-breakers and cheaper employees from Europe. Emigrant companies were formed "to import laborers, especially skilled laborers, from Great Britain, Belgium, France, Switzerland, Norway, and Sweden for . . . employers of labor in America." By means of these companies employers could be quickly furnished with great numbers of workers either skilled or unskilled.

Decade after decade the labor unions, aided by humanitarian leaders, protested against the bringing in from Europe of contract-laborers. Finally, in 1885 Congress was persuaded to pass a law which forbade that sort of thing.

In the meantime, however, as you have already learned, voluntary European immigration was increasing by leaps and bounds. Hundreds of thousands of northwestern Europeans were entering our ports each year. Many of these, of course, were going out into the farms of Illinois, Wisconsin, and Missouri. But many were also going to work in the mines, in the factories, and on the railroads. Thus native American labor constantly faced the danger of lower wages. The millions of new laborers seeking to take their places were willing to work for a very small amount of money. Standards of living were lower in European countries than in America, and emigrants who came here were willing at first to work for much lower wages than our native laborers were receiving.

Then, after 1900, a new flood of immigration began. Italians, Russians, Slovaks, Armenians,— peoples from every country of eastern and southeastern Europe,— poured through our ports. Almost 1,000,000 a year they came. A vast proportion of these people went into the industries which were demanding unskilled laborers. These new European emigrants had lived at home on a standard of living even lower than that of Germany, England, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. The result was that after 1900, millions of low-wage laborers entered American industries. The employers gained greatly, of course. But what about the laborers? Do you see what effect that would have on laborers' wages? Would not the cheap immigrant laborers keep wages low? Were they not arriving in such great numbers that their presence would reduce the standard of living of our native workers? Such at least is the belief of our careful students of industry.

INCREASING NUMBERS OF WOMEN WENT INTO INDUSTRY AND BUSINESS

By 1860 one third of the factory workers in New England were women. In the entire country about one eighth were women. In some industries as many as two thirds of the workers were women.

At that time also, women workers in New England factories spent on an average twelve hours a day at their machines. The factory quarters were unhealthful, and the home quarters of the girls were worse.

An investigator of the times wrote:

> The young women sleep upon an average of six in a room — three beds to a room. There is no privacy, no retirement here; it is almost impossible to read or write alone, as the parlor is full and so many sleep in the same chamber. A young woman remarked to us that if she had a letter to write, she did it on the head of a band-box, sitting on a trunk, as there was not space for a table. So live and toil the young women of our country in the boarding houses and manufactories, which the rich and influential of our land have built for them.

There were exceptions to these conditions, especially in the first years of the Industrial Revolution. Lowell, Massachusetts, was then a model factory town for women workers. The girls who worked in the textile mills there were well housed and fairly well clothed. Their condition was a contrast to that of textile workers elsewhere even at that time. Later, however, the conditions in Lowell became as bad as everywhere else.

During the 30 years between 1870 and 1900 the number of women workers steadily increased from one eighth to nearly one fifth of all the workers. In 1900 women were working in every occupation excepting that of soldier, sailor, marine, street-car operator, fireman, apprentice to roofers, steamboiler mechanic, and brass-worker.

The wages of women and children during those 30 years were shockingly low. In 1860 the women factory workers averaged about $20 a month. The American Federation of Labor stated later that the workers did not receive enough to keep body and soul together. Wages ranged from $6.91 a week in San Francisco to $3.93 in Richmond. In addition employers paid women lower wages than men because they said that women were weaker, more subject to illness, and were only temporary workers. Women were not powerful enough at that time to exert any influence in the business world or to change their conditions.

FIG. 242. The woman worker is found in almost every industry, trade, or profession today. (Courtesy of the Western Electric Company)

Nowadays women workers too belong to unions which are a part of the American Federation of Labor. In such industries as garment-making, the laundry industry, the tobacco industry, bookbinding, and hat-manufacturing, many of the union members are women. They also have their own unions in these industries.

In 1903 the National Women's Trade Union League was formed chiefly on the basis of "equal pay for equal work." The union has its own newspapers and schools to train leaders. It receives help and support from the American Federation of Labor.

EMPLOYERS FORMED ASSOCIATIONS, TOO

Many employers felt from the first days of labor organizations that, since labor was arming itself with such weapons as the strike and sabotage, there was no safety for capital except in union. So as early as 1863 employers' associations were founded. Their platform denied the right of laborers to fix wages. It also declared that the employers were opposed to unions and to any attempt on the part of the unions to regulate the number of workmen employed. The employers' associations threatened to blacklist any man who went on strike. If a man were blacklisted, it meant that his name was sent to every employer in the association with the warning that he should not be given a job.

In 1895 a Federal Employers' Association, which corresponded to some extent with the American Federation of Labor, was formed. The chief object of the association was, of course, to promote trade, but it was also interested in keeping peace by making agreements with union men. In 1916 the National Industrial Conference Board was formed and has grown to an association including 21 organizations of manufacturers.

Settling Labor Disputes without Strikes

As we have seen, in the early period of labor unions the workmen's chief weapon was the strike. In recent years, however, more peaceable means have often been found. Strikes have frequently been settled by *collective bargaining*, in which representatives of workers and employers meet to discuss their separate problems and difficulties. They then agree upon terms acceptable to both parties. Strikes have been *prevented* by this means.

At other times, when the two groups of representatives could not come to a satisfactory agreement, strikes have been avoided through *arbitration*. When arbitration is agreed upon, representatives are chosen from the unions and from the employer group. Each group of representatives is to present its side of the case. A chairman or a board of men is chosen to act as judge. The duty of the judges is to investigate fully the complaint of the workers as well as the case of the employers, and to give a decision which they believe to be fair to both sides. This board or chairman may be selected by the agreement of workers and employers or may be appointed by some outside person such as the Secretary of Labor or the President of the United States. Sometimes the employers and laborers agree in advance to accept the decision of the board or chairman. At other times they are compelled by law to accept it. Sometimes they accept it or not, as they please.

Since modern life has become so interdependent, a strike in a big industry is a very serious matter which affects many more people than the workers and employers directly involved. In 1922, when many of the railroads stopped running for a few days because of a strike, great numbers of people in all parts of the country began to suffer almost immediately. The great coal strike of the same year caused much suffering during the following winter. Some means of avoiding strikes in settling labor disputes is very essential.

WORKINGMEN HAVE USED THE BALLOT TOO

Workingmen have also secured many of the things they desired by using the power of their votes. At times they have organized labor parties and have nominated labor candidates for offices. The first of these was the Workingmen's Party, organized in 1828. Its principal aim was to elect public officials who would favor the ten-hour day. Another party was the Socialist Labor party which nominated a candidate for president in 1892 and in succeeding years, but never received many votes.

Although in England the Labor party has become one of the strongest political groups, twice in control of the government, in this country no Labor party has ever gained much strength; yet the laboring people here have secured many things by political means. By casting their votes for candidates who would agree to work for things they desired, they have had a large part in securing laws for their own benefit and often for the benefit of the whole country. They have worked for such things as the following: the extension of free education, laws restricting the labor of women and children, laws assuring a laborer compensation when injured at his work, a limitation of the length of the legal working day, a short day for public employees, laws protecting life and health in mines and factories, woman suffrage, the creation of a national Department of Labor, and many other things.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE FARMER IN THE NEW INDUSTRIAL AGE

Agriculture expanded rapidly during the very years when the great industries were growing. Indeed, it was only the increase in farming that made possible our great industrial development.

Regiments of men could be brought together into factories, mines, stores, and offices only if sufficient food was at hand to feed them. Furthermore, the great agricultural *industries* — meat-packing, milling, and canning — could develop only as the farms of America developed also.

The great growth of agriculture was brought about by the same four factors which we have so often studied before: abundance of cheap land, favorable climate, rapid increase in population, and the invention and widespread use of farm machinery.

The rapid increase in population and in the number of farmers, especially by European immigration

In 1860 the population of the United States was 31,443,000. In 1910 it was 91,972,000. Between 1860 and 1910 approximately 24,000,000 people emigrated to the United States, chiefly from European countries. Between 1880 and 1910 over 19,000,000 came; and between 1890 and 1914 nearly 1,000,000 people entered the ports of the United States every year.

Before 1900 large numbers of these immigrants went to work as farmers. In the 1860's to 1880's hundreds of thousands of Germans became farmers in the Middle West. After 1880 many Swedes, Danes, and Norwegians took up farms in the Dakotas, Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Iowa.

After 1900 several million Italians entered the country. Many became fruit-growers and truck farmers outside of the cities, in the eastern and central sections of the country. Millions of Slavs came, also, after 1900. Although most of them went to work in the factories, mines, and mills, and on the railroads, many took up farms in the middle and northeastern prairies.

The widespread use of farm machinery changed farm work and farm life

Plows and reapers were two of the most important of the earlier machines for use on farms. In the 1870's factories in the Middle West offered "chilled steel" plows for sale at a fairly low price. Improvements were also made in harvesting machines. In 1878 F. F. Appleby invented the twine-binder — an attachment for the reaper by which the sheaves of grain could be bound into a bundle. In 1885 a combined harvesting and threshing machine was perfected.

The growing of corn and other farm products was also made easier by means of mechanical corn-planters, huskers, and shellers, which enabled one man to do the work of several. On the dry soil of the prairies it was found that corn land could be plowed and harrowed and planted automatically by the same machine.

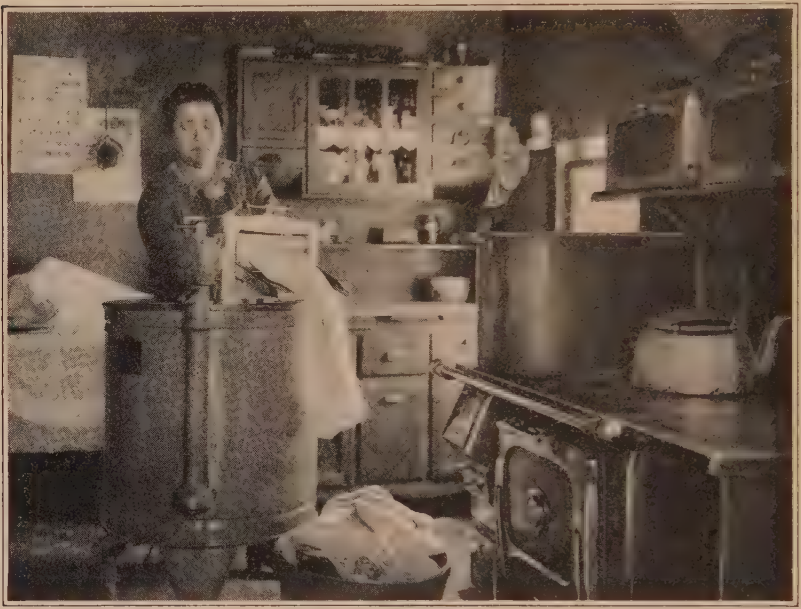

FIG. 243. Even the women on farms are becoming tenders of machines. The electric washer and wringer are taking the place of the washboard and hand power

As the years of the 1870's and 1880's passed, many new machines were placed upon the market: weeding machines, cultivating machines drawn by several horses, machines for loading hay, for digging potatoes, for distributing fertilizer — these are only a few out of many. In the South after 1880, cotton-seed planters and machines to cut the cotton stalks were introduced, and the cotton gin was improved.

However, horses and steam as power for farm use were still comparatively inefficient and clumsy; it was the perfection of the gasoline engine after 1900 that brought a new revolution in many aspects of farm work. Gasoline tractors came into use increasingly after 1900, and small gas engines were used to pump water and to haul plowing, cultivating, harvesting, and threshing machines.

During the same years of the 1880's, 1890's, and early 1900's came the invention of electrical machines and appliances and improvement of household utensils. Electric lights were installed in farm homes. Milking machines, separating machines, and electrical attachments for churns lightened and made more efficient the dairying work of the farm. Houses were piped for running water. Washing machines, refrigerators, gas stoves, sewing machines, vacuum cleaners, and a host of minor utensils helped the farm women in their daily tasks about the house.

Besides, life on farms became more pleasant because of other inventions and improvements which affected the farmer. The most important were those which helped communication and transportation: the telephone, rural free delivery of mail, the radio, smooth macadam or cement roads, and the automobile. Thus, as both transportation and communication became easier, social life improved and farm life became less lonely.

Like the industrial workers, the farmers formed associations

After the Civil War, Oliver Hudson Kelley, a farmer and government official, felt that organization was necessary for the protection and advancement of the farmer. Accordingly, he with several others founded a secret organization to which women in the rural communities were to be admitted on an equal basis with men. The order grew rapidly and soon local units were linked by representatives to district, state, and national units. By 1874 the Grange, as the association came to be called, had a membership of 800,000. By 1875 it had grown to 1,500,000. The original object of the Grange was educational. Soon, however, it took on other aims. By 1875 it had become a power in state and national legislation in all matters which affected the farmer — railroads, monopolies, freight rebates to favored shippers, etc. Through the 1880's the power and membership of the granges declined for a time, but in the 1890's they began again to increase in numbers and influence. On June 30, 1914, there were strong state granges in 32 states with a membership of approximately 600,000. Although smaller in membership than in the 1870's, the Grange was in 1914 a sounder organization.

Other farmers' organizations also sprang up, such as the National Farmers' Alliance, which had a large membership in the South.

Together these organizations were influential in securing rural mail delivery, the postal savings bank, the parcel post, and other improvements of a similar kind. Although they were nonpolitical, the combined votes of their members made a powerful total.

During the period between 1865 and 1914 great numbers of farmers moved to the cities, as you have already learned from your study of *An Introduction to American Civilization.* The lives of those who remained on the farms in 1914, however, were quite different from the lives of farmers in 1865. Engines and machines had entered farming life as they had entered industrial life. Farmers' associations had been built up in rural communities as industrial unions had grown up in city populations. The farmer was no longer shut off from his neighbors, so that farm life was much less lonely than it had been in 1865.

Thus we have seen how the Industrial Revolution changed the Life of the Worker

Summing up the whole problem, we cannot doubt that the coming of the machine age improved the standard of living of the common man — of both industrial worker and farmer. Not at first, of course. In the first years of the Industrial Revolution hours of labor in the factories were terribly long, working conditions were wretchedly unhealthful, and wages pitifully small. Craftsmen lost the opportunities of their skilled trades and were compelled to become operators of machines in the mills and factories. Similarly, the worker lost his power of bargaining about wages and prices.

To improve their conditions, however, many craftsmen and farmers joined with their fellows in the growing cities and towns and formed associations. Steadily year after year, through strikes, through arbitration, through state and national legislation, the laborer improved his conditions. In this, of course, he was aided by the superior production of the new machines themselves, and especially by the astonishing development of engines of increasing power. He was also aided by the vast natural resources which America had in greater quantities than any other western country.

The twelve-hour day became for most industrial workers the ten-hour day and, by the outbreak of the World War, the eight-hour or nine-hour day. Correspondingly wages increased. The standard of living of the industrial and of the agricultural worker became higher than that of the worker of any other country. He had more leisure, he had a better home, better clothing, better food. His children all went to school, and increasing numbers went on into the high schools and into the colleges.

Working against him, however, was the rapid disappearance of free land in the West and the coming in of millions of cheap immigrant laborers from Europe. Between 1900 and 1914 his condition grew slowly worse rather than better.

Thus we have described the influence of the Industrial Revolution upon the life of the worker in the United States up to the World War. What happened during the war and in the decade since will be told in Chapter XXV.

UNIT X

AMERICAN FOREIGN EXPANSION AND THE ERA OF PROSPERITY

AMERICAN FOREIGN EXPANSION AND THE ERA OF PROSPERITY

We have reached the closing phases of American economic history — the expansion of the American people into other lands. For 300 years they have spread their boundaries. By 1890 all the land between the two oceans was settled. Did that close the great drama of American expansion? Far from it. No sooner did business men accumulate great surplus amounts of wealth than they began to invest it in foreign countries.

Even in the early nineteenth century they had begun to develop a great trade with the Orient as well as with Europe and South America. Steadily as the years went on adventurous Americans settled in distant regions — in Hawaii, in the Philippines, in China and the Far East, in the West Indies, in Mexico, and in South America. Gradually they came to play an important part in the history of those regions. Finally, in some cases they persuaded the American government to annex the regions and bring them within the American empire. To the story of this expansion beyond our continental boundaries we turn in Chapter XXIV.

In Chapter XXV the final scene of our national drama will be staged — the happenings since 1914. The World War broke with suddenness upon the American people in the summer of 1914. More sharply than any other series of events since the Civil War it transformed their ways of living. We shall see how it changed America from a fairly important industrial nation to the wealthiest and most powerful nation of the earth. We shall note how it produced an even more startling industrial and commercial revolution than the Civil War, 50 years before. We shall consider the increasing demand of the American people for a better living; the improvement in homes, in food, in clothing; and the increase in variety and amount of recreation. We shall consider the influence of all this upon the individual American citizen. We shall ask important questions; for example, Are all Americans sharing in this fine standard of living? How is the national income being divided among the people? How does it happen that in spite of our prosperity so many people are unemployed?

Finally, in Chapter XXVI, we shall sum up the chief economic and social problems of today. We shall ask how the gains and losses of our new industrial civilization compare. We shall consider what are the promises for American life in the future.

CHAPTER XXIV

AMERICAN BUSINESS EXPANDS ABROAD

How Capital was invested and Trade developed in industrially Backward Countries

How James Thomas, an American business man, built up his tobacco business in Oriental countries

"All my life I have been in the tobacco business, and most of my life I have been engaged in the development of the American cigarette trade in the Orient. . . .

"In 1888, when I was just 22 years old, I got a job with W. Duke's Sons and Company to go to Australia at a monthly salary of $53.33 and expenses. I went out across the Pacific to the ends of the earth, determined soon to have Australians smoking American cigarettes. . . .

"After six and a half years I succeeded in getting American cigarettes established in Australia. Then in 1894 I left Australia, principally because of the war between China and Japan, which unsettled trade in the Pacific. I went to Smyrna, which was the center of the Greek-Anatolian tobacco trade. There I spent six months in learning the Levantine tobacco business.

"In the following ten years I was in India, Borneo, Java, Sumatra, Siam, the Philippines (before the American occupation), Ceylon, Japan, and China. In fact, in all Asia I placed American cigarettes. . . . These were the American tobacco pioneers in the Orient. I introduced them. There were none before I came. Billions are now sold there annually.

"It was necessary in any country to estimate what people could afford to buy. My first move was to make a study of the currency and to find the coin of low denomination generally used. Then I could give a man a good smoke for a price that would not necessitate the clumsy making of change. Every coolie in Hong Kong could rake up a five-cent piece "Mexican." Every Indian, irrespective of caste, has an *anna* in his pocket. The enormous amount of retail purchasing in the Orient is done in cash payments of small coins.

"The first big result I got was in India with a cigarette that I called Railway. I had a colored picture of a locomotive put on the box, because I judged the rail-engine would appeal to the people as a stirring, impressive, powerful thing. I put out my Railway cigarette, with ten cigarettes and ten mouthpieces packed in an attractive paper box, laid it down in India with a profit to everybody along the line, and gave the purchaser a good smoke for the current coin of one anna, or two American cents. . . .

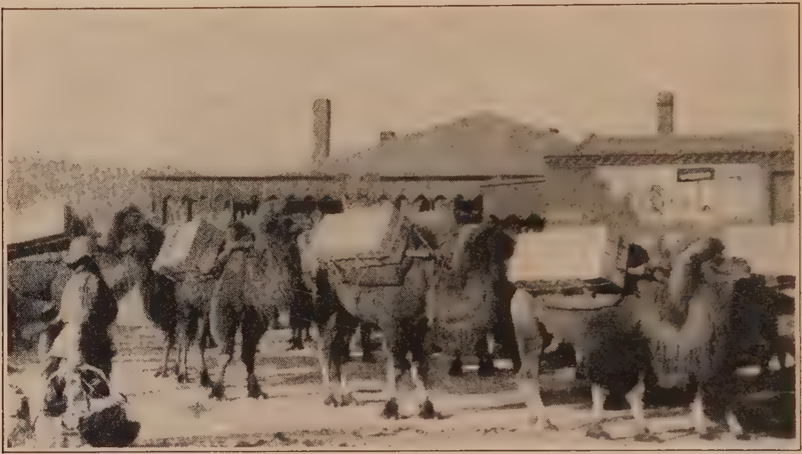

FIG. 244. Camels laden with American cigarettes about to start across the Gobi desert to the interior of China. (Courtesy of James A. Thomas)

Millions of possible customers in Asia

"Well, we could not make them fast enough. In India alone we were dealing with 330,000,000 possible cigarette-smokers. Small margins and tremendous sales were what I was after. In them was the key to Far Eastern trade in staple commodities. . . .

"In September, 1902, just as the British-American Tobacco Company was formed, I was transferred from Calcutta to Shanghai and, early in 1903, to Hong Kong. . . . I worked night and day. . . . Within six months my goods were successful. The Chinese trade swung round and swamped me with buyers. And then from Hong Kong I extended the same system all over China, from Kwangtung to Manchuria and from Chihli to Szechwan. . . .

"We built factories there and manufactured our own leaf, which was imported in bulk from the United States. We also provided a market for some of the inferior leaf grown in China. The British-American Tobacco Company now owns and operates large factories in China at Shanghai, Hankow, Tientsin, and Mukden."[1]

In the period after the Civil War thousands of men succeeded, like James Thomas, in carrying American business into other countries. American business men began to sell tractors to farmers who had always used crude wooden plows. American traders sold American-made cotton cloth to people who had worn either their own homemade cloth made of the bark of trees, or perhaps almost no clothing at all. American goods were sold in Europe, Asia, South America, Africa, in the Pacific islands — indeed, in every continent and region.

Then Americans began to buy great plantations in the tropics and raise sugar or pineapples or tobacco. They sent natives into the jungles to tap rubber trees. They dug for oil under the blazing sun of Mexico. They built factories and railroads and banks in lands where men had known only tiny villages and slow travel by rough roads.

How did it come about — this interest in selling tobacco, cloth, farm machinery, tools, and other products of a manufacturing country to the people of lands where there had been no demand for these things? How was it possible that American enterprises extended over the earth?

To answer these questions you must think back over what you have learned of the industrial and financial development of the country. Remember how, after the Civil War, railroad lines were extended, factories were built, great industries were developed, and vast fortunes were made. The United States became one of the leading industrial countries of the world, with great industrial and financial institutions owned and controlled by a small group of men.

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[1] Adapted from James A. Thomas's "Selling and Civilization," in *Asia*, Vol. 23, December, 1923, pp. 896–898, 949.

That is the background for this next chapter in the story of American business. After 1890, especially, Americans found that they must have *places to sell their goods and invest their money outside the United States.*

As you know, this world trade had begun in colonial times. Even before 1800 American merchants bought and sold goods in a few ports of the world. As trade increased, numbers of Americans settled in many of these distant regions. They bought farms and plantations and set up stores and factories. They became well-to-do and played an important part in the governments of the places where they settled. In some cases they succeeded in having the region in which they had made their homes annexed to the United States.

Let us study a few important examples of the way American business has expanded in foreign countries.

How the Hawaiian Islands became a Territory of the United States

Out of the bed of the Pacific Ocean a number of mountains have pushed their peaks above the water to form islands. Among these land forms in mid-ocean are the Hawaiian Islands, lying about 2100 miles southwest of San Francisco. Their climate is mild and their scenery beautiful. Mark Twain once described them as the "loveliest fleet of islands anchored in any ocean."

About the time the American colonies were struggling for their independence from Great Britain, an Englishman, Captain James Cook, brought these islands to the attention of the outside world. At that time they were peopled by brown-skinned natives who had never heard of the rest of the world. They lived in grass houses and wore little clothing. They spent much time fishing and swimming in the surrounding waters. They also gathered crops from their fertile fields; and tribe fought with tribe for possession of these fields.

All this it is difficult for the visitor to Honolulu, the capital city of the islands, to realize. Here are fine homes, up-to-date hotels, and attractive business buildings. The streets are crowded with automobiles, the shops display fashionable clothing and modern furniture, the docks are busy with arriving and departing ships.

Scarcely had Captain Cook told the world of the existence of these islands when everything began to change. The story of this change is largely the story of traders and missionaries, many of whom were Americans. Among the first of the traders were men who had collected furs along the northwest coast of America and who were taking them to China, where they could be sold at enormous profits. Their voyage was long, and it is natural that the convenient location of Hawaii, together with its perpetual summer time, should have made this an ideal place at which the voyagers might rest and refit their ships. Some of the traders discovered the forests of fragrant sandalwood on the mountain slopes of Hawaii. Since the Chinese would eagerly buy this wood, the traders were equally eager to add it to their cargoes of fur. Indeed, so anxious were the native chiefs and the traders to make money that the sandalwood forests were soon destroyed.

Meanwhile, all over the civilized world the whaling industry was developing rapidly. In those days there was no kerosene or electricity. Whale oil was in great demand for use in lamps and in the making of candles. Accordingly a great many ships, most of them with American captains, went whaling in the North Pacific. These ships put in at the Hawaiian Islands to obtain supplies and make needed repairs. Between 1840 and 1860 an average of 400 whaling ships a year anchored in Hawaiian waters.

As a result of the discovery of petroleum in 1859 the whaling industry received a blow from which it never recovered. Another change therefore took place in the development of the Hawaiian Islands. This time attention was turned to the agricultural possibilities of the islands. In 1835 an American firm, Ladd and Company, leased a tract of land for 50 years and started the first successful sugar plantation. Since then the sugar industry has become the chief industry of Hawaii. Second only to sugar is the pineapple industry. Yet the difficulties encountered in the development of the agriculture of the islands were serious — a land system which made it difficult to secure leases; a shortage of labor due, first, to a decrease in population and, secondly, to the rigid control which the native rulers exercised over their subjects; uncertain markets, especially with regard to sugar, because of the competition of other parts of the world; and the high tariff demanded by the United States. These difficulties united with crop pests, water shortage, crude tools, and scarcity of capital to make the beginnings of the agricultural development of Hawaii uncertain.

In 1876, however, a treaty was made between Hawaii and the United States. The latter, in return for certain considerations, admitted without tariff practically all Hawaiian products including unrefined sugar. The effect was amazing. It showed that the most serious of the many obstacles to Hawaii's agricultural development had been the lack of a free market. From this time on men freely invested money in sugar plantations; irrigation ditches and tunnels were built; machinery was improved; and great waves of immigrant labor came to Hawaii — first Chinese, then Portugese, Japanese, Porto Ricans, Koreans, Russians, Spaniards, and finally Filipinos. Today the population of Hawaii is very complex, consisting mainly of Hawaiians, Caucasians of half a dozen nationalities, Japanese, Chinese, Filipinos, and many mixtures resulting from intermarriage.

While American business men were doing much to build up the commercial life of the islands, American missionaries were introducing churches, schools, and the press. Today Hawaii has one of the most progressive public-school systems in the United States. Through her schools Hawaii is solving one of her most difficult problems — Americanization, and the adjustment of special difficulties resulting from the large percentage of children of Oriental ancestry. In spite of the varied ancestry, 98 per cent of all school children in Hawaii today are American citizens.

The Hawaiian Islands were maintained as a monarchy from 1795 to 1893. During that time, as an increasing number of Americans settled there, the question of annexation to the United States was brought up at frequent intervals, especially after the settlement of California. In 1893 the Hawaiian queen was dethroned and annexation was requested, but it was not until 1898 that the request was granted. In 1900 Hawaii became a territory of the United States and has prospered to such an extent that it has, during the past ten years, paid taxes to the Federal government averaging between $5,000,000 and $6,000,000 yearly, ranking each year above more than a dozen of the states.

So Hawaii has changed in the last century and a half from an isolated island kingdom to an important territory of the United States. It is not merely a possession but an integral part of the nation, just like Ohio or California. Out of her ports go ships carrying large cargoes of food products, most of which are consumed in continental United States; $106,312,833.00 worth of Hawaiian products, consisting largely of sugar and pineapples, were shipped to the mainland in 1929. Other shipments to the United States include coffee, bananas, canned fish, hides, and skins. In return, Hawaii provides a market where mainland dealers sell their automobiles, mineral oil, cotton manufactures, tobacco, machinery, building materials, rubber, and canned goods. In 1929 people living in the Hawaiian Islands bought $82,661,424.00 worth of mainland products.

Every day sees the development of a closer connection between continental United States and these island parts of the United States. Fast trains speed across the continent to connect at Seattle, Portland, San Francisco, and Los Angeles with steamers for Hawaii; so it is now possible to travel from New York City to Honolulu in less than nine days.

II. How the United States secured Alaska

In 1741, when an officer in the Russian navy, named Captain Vitus Bering (a Dane by birth), was exploring the Aleutian Islands, he and his party ventured onto the great mainland now called Alaska. Bering died on the way home, but his men returned to Russia across Siberia and claimed the islands and the land for their Czar. After the exploring expedition came many vessels carrying traders and trappers, and a few Russian trading posts were established.

Later in the 1700's English explorers claimed the coast of south Alaska for their kings, and the British Hudson's Bay Company pushed northward to set up trading posts there. By 1788 posts were established by an American trading company, which later was united with a Russian company and called the Russian-American Company. There were frequent difficulties among the traders, but treaties were made and war was averted.

As early as 1859 the American government had made offers to the Russian government to buy Alaska. The Civil War checked the movement, but in 1867 an agreement was reached, by which the United States paid Russia $7,200,000 for the great territory. Many people in the United States were angry at what they regarded as an extravagant purchase. Seven million dollars for icebound waste land!

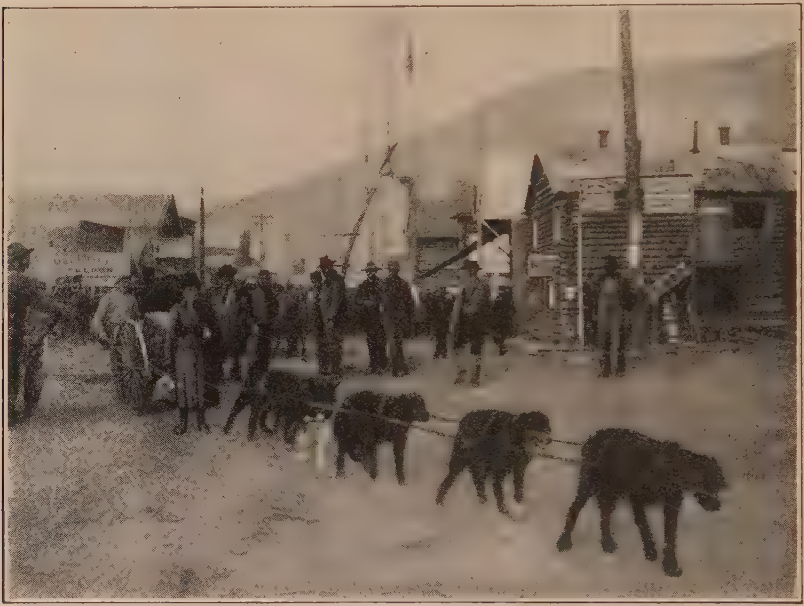

FIG. 245. The Klondike during the Gold Rush in 1896

But in 1887 at Forty Mile Creek came the message "Gold found!" Then, in 1896, when tremendous quantities of gold were found in the Klondike district of the neighboring Canadian possession, Yukon Territory, men rushed there and to Alaska as they had to California 50 years before. Again crude towns sprang up in the mining district to supply the gold-seekers with food, drink, and mining supplies. In one decade (1896–1906) $100,000,000 worth of gold was taken out of Alaska.

In recent years, however, the fur and fishing industries of Alaska have become even more important than gold-mining. There are also vast timber regions of great value. Large copper deposits were found there in 1901; coal, which is chiefly lignite, has been found in many regions; and marble quarries have been opened on one of the islands.

Today Alaska ships to the United States over $50,000,000 worth of goods a year. Quite a return for an original investment of $7,200,000, is it not?

III. How American Business also spread in the Philippines

The war with Spain in 1898 led to another important event in the development of the American empire. In that year Spain ceded to the United States Porto Rico, Guam, and the Philippines. For the latter Spain received $20,000,000.

The Philippine Islands stretch along the coast of Asia for a distance of 1000 miles. Although they number altogether more than 7000, they consist essentially of eleven large islands, each over 1000 square miles in area.

On these islands, for nobody knows how many thousands of years, many tribes of brown-skinned Malay peoples lived a primitive life in their crude bamboo huts, much like the life lived by the Hawaiians. Many of them, however, had come in contact with the Hindu and Mohammedan civilizations.

The climate too of the Philippines was similar to that of Hawaii. These islands stretch from 5 to 19 degrees north latitude — from Mindanao and Jolo, almost on the equator, to Luzon. The temperature throughout the year is decidedly warm, with an average of about 80 degrees. Rainfall is heavy, coming principally in the long rainy season in the summer and autumn months. Considerable amounts of land are level, and most of the soil is fertile enough to produce large crops of tropical products.

You remember how Magellan, the Portuguese explorer, had succeeded in 1521 in sailing around the southern tip of South America and across the Pacific to the Philippine Islands (see pages 48–50). After his death on the island of Cebu his men went to Spain and succeeded in completing the first circumnavigation of the world.

In the 1600's an increasing number of Spanish priests, traders, and business men had settled in the northern and middle islands. The priests had established churches and converted many of the Malay peoples. These Malays became known to Europeans as Filipinos, since their islands had been named Philippines, after Philip II of Spain, who took possession of the islands in 1566.

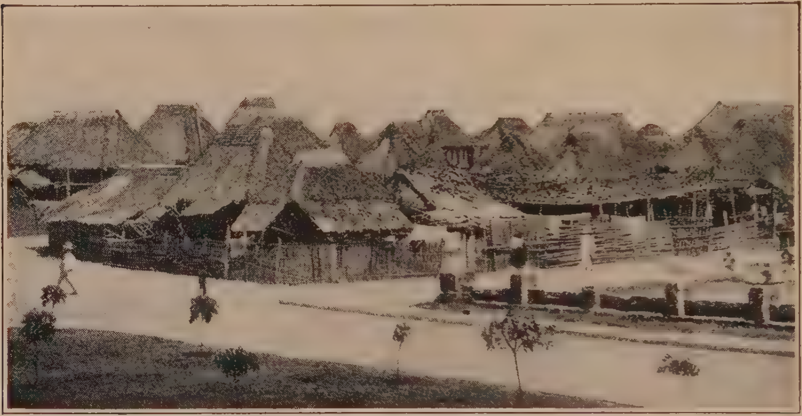

FIG. 246. The native section of Manila today. Under American government this part of the city has been cleaned up and made a sanitary place in which to live. (Courtesy of the Bureau of Insular Affairs)

In the meantime the business men of Spain had done what the American business men did later in Hawaii. They acquired vast tracts of fertile land and developed large plantations on which were raised sugar, tobacco, rice, abacá (hemp), fruit, coconut oil, and other tropical products. For 300 years the Spaniards increased their control over the business and agriculture of the islands and over the government of the people. Throughout that time the people lived in abject poverty and in a condition that was little better than slavery. The Spaniards did not bother to educate the natives and paid them meager wages. Foreign traders were jealously kept out. The rule of Spain in the Philippines was like that of Spain throughout South America, Mexico, Central America, and the West Indies.

As early as 1850 the United States government had seen that the American navy should have coaling stations and naval bases in the Orient. Among the most desirable of these places were the Philippine Islands, particularly the island of Luzon, on which is Manila, the capital and the largest city of the islands. Luzon, which separates the Pacific Ocean from the South China Sea, is only one and a half days' voyage from Hong Kong, between two and three days from Japan, and about three days from Singapore.

FIG. 247. Commercial buildings in the modern section of Manila. (Courtesy of the Bureau of Insular Affairs)

For more than 70 years American merchants too had desired centers in this region for developing their business with Oriental countries. Although a few Americans had succeeded in acquiring land in the Philippines, the Spaniards did not welcome them.

In the early 1890's, however, a few Americans penetrated into the interior of the islands. There they found scattered tribes, so wild and timid that it was difficult at first for the white men to come to any kind of terms with them, but after living among them for some time the Americans finally won their confidence. They taught the Filipinos to lay out their villages in streets, to plant trees, and build houses. The natives were not unwilling to work and often asked the advice of the white men. Soon American plantations were cleared and planted, and the Filipinos were hired to work in the fields. Generally the people were industrious and easy to get along with.

In 1898 the United States defeated Spain in a short war, and Spain surrendered the Philippines to the United States for the sum of $20,000,000. The United States took possession of the islands without consulting the wishes of the Filipinos themselves. The Americans governed the islands after 1898. They built roads, improved water supplies, and established schools.

It is important to note, however, that American trade with the Philippines increased rapidly after our government took possession in 1898. For three quarters of a century trade had grown slowly, but after 1900 it increased much more rapidly, as the table above shows.

TRADE BETWEEN UNITED STATES AND PHILIPPINES, 1831, 1900, AND 1929

1831	$1,217,000
1900	22,000,000
1929	220,000,000

What kinds of goods were exchanged? Here are some of the products which are being imported by the Philippines from the United States:

- Cotton and cotton goods
- Iron and steel products
- Milk, preserved or canned
- Automobiles and their parts
- Wheat flour
- Fish and fish products
- Rubber manufactures
- Chemicals — dyes, drugs, medicines
- Leather and leather products

From the Philippines we buy such products as

- Coconut oil
- Copra (dried coconut)
- Manila hemp
- Sugar
- Tobacco leaf

The trade of the Philippines with the United States is a large part of the total trade of the islands. Although American traders have important rivals there — the Chinese and the native Filipinos themselves — American business has succeeded in establishing itself.

IV. AMERICAN BUSINESS SPREADS TO THE ISLANDS OF THE WEST INDIES AND CENTRAL AMERICA

The islands known as the West Indies lie southeast of Florida and directly east of Central America. There are four important islands — Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica, and Porto Rico — and many little ones of less importance. The large islands are known as the Greater Antilles, and the small ones are called the Lesser Antilles. They are the tops of tremendously high mountains, the ocean around them being nearly 25,000 feet deep in many places.

They lie directly in the path of the east-west trade between Central America and western Europe. Then, too, they are on the valuable north-south path between the Atlantic and Gulf ports of the United States and South America. Finally, they are on the paths of trade entering the Panama Canal bound for the west coasts of North and South America and the countries of the Pacific. A truly important location for world trade!

The larger islands of the West Indies lie between 18 and 23 degrees north latitude. Throughout the year the temperature is warm, averaging about 75 to 80 degrees, and plenty of rain is brought by the northeast trade winds. The northeast sides of the mountains are covered with tropical vegetables as well as valuable crops of bananas, coconuts, pineapples, and other fruit.

But it is sugar, tobacco, and coffee for which these islands are especially valuable. Great sugar plantations cover the lowlands. Today foreign business men — principally American and British — control the largest interest in them.

As you know, Columbus discovered these islands in his voyages (1492–1504) and claimed them for Spain. Then the Spanish people settled there and ruled for several hundred years. During that time some of the islands became the possessions of other countries.

Spain lost Jamaica to England in 1655, and from that time the island has belonged to Great Britain. Today about 45 per cent of Jamaica's trade is with Great Britain and about 40 per cent with the United States.

In 1697 Haiti was ceded by Spain to France, which ruled it for nearly a century. But many revolutions occurred there between 1789 and 1803, and finally in 1804 Haiti became an independent republic. From that day to this there have been many disturbances. In 1915 the United States intervened and since that date has supervised the government of the island. (You will read more of that story in the next volume.) American business men invested their money in sugar and sisal plantations, and other industries. Today it is estimated that they have more than $15,000,000 invested in the island.

Although Spain lost Jamaica and Haiti in the 1600's, she succeeded in holding Cuba and Porto Rico until nearly 1900. These islands remained faithful to the feeble mother country during the revolutionary years of 1810 to 1828, when the larger Spanish colonies of South and Central America were declaring their independence.

During the 1800's Cuba and Porto Rico were both in a miserable condition. Spain was going through great political disturbances, and the colonies felt the unrest. The government of the colonies was in the hands of various military governors, some of whom were tolerant and wise but many very tyrannical. The islanders were forced to buy their goods from Spanish merchants and to sell their own products to the latter at a low price.

From earliest colonial times the United States had carried on much trade with these islands of the West Indies. Other countries — England, France, Mexico, and Colombia — were also interested in them. The island of Cuba was especially desirable.

Time passed. The Civil War came, and Spain was still holding Cuba. A fierce fight for better government broke out there in 1868 and lasted ten years. In the meantime the sugar farmers of Cuba were becoming disturbed over the growing beet-sugar industry in Europe. Recall how after 1870 Germany especially began to manufacture great quantities of beet sugar. France and several other neighboring countries also began to raise sugar beets. Since cane sugar was one of Cuba's important exports, her trade was seriously injured.

At this time also our Southern states were beginning the cultivation of sugar cane. To protect their young industry American sugar-planters persuaded Congress to place a high tariff, or duty, on sugar. The tariff checked Cuban trade and enabled the

American planters to charge higher prices for their own product. The European beet-sugar competition and the high tariff in the United States nearly ruined the Cuban sugar trade; in the 1890's many of the Spanish planters were forced to stop growing sugar. Because of this thousands of laborers were thrown out of work.

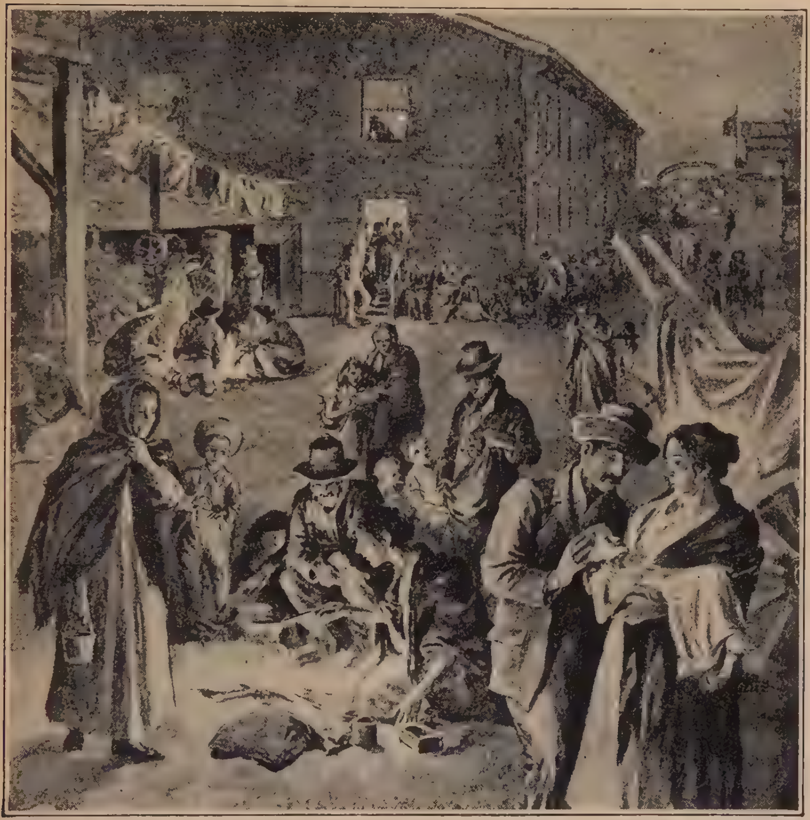

FIG. 248. During the Cuban uprisings (see page 576) the rural population of the islands were herded into camps such as that shown in the picture. Hundreds of them died of starvation or disease. (From *Harper's Weekly*, April 2, 1898)

During the last years of the 1800's marked discontent with the Spanish rulers began to spread steadily among the Cubans. The government which the Spaniards had installed in Cuba was shockingly inefficient. Taxes were high, and native Cubans were unable to sell their products for high enough prices to get a living.

Faced by starvation because of the decline of the sugar trade, thousands of Cuban laborers joined the uprisings that began to spread over the island in 1895. During the next two years the island seethed with revolt. American newspapers took sides with the Cubans against the Spaniards, and sensational stories were printed of the cruelties of Spanish planters and rulers and of the tragic misery of many thousands of the Cuban people.

Then came the Spanish-American War of 1898, which lasted only a few months. In August, 1898, Spain surrendered and in the Treaty of Paris gave Cuba to the United States "in trust" for the Cuban people. In 1902 the Cubans were given independence, but the United States expressly stated its right to intervene.

In 1898, also, Spain ceded Porto Rico and another island to the United States and opened the way to the purchase of the Philippine Islands, about which you have just read.

After the Spanish-American War American business spread rapidly in the Caribbean region

After 1898 Americans with money to invest were especially active in the West Indies and throughout Central America. In Porto Rico, for example, they bought up many small farms and converted them into large sugar plantations. Before 1898 coffee was the chief crop produced in Porto Rico. Today the sugar crop is far more important, though a large quantity of very high-grade coffee is still exported every year.

Several of these sugar plantations are small towns in themselves — indeed, almost small American-ruled colonies. Everything on them is owned or controlled by Americans — the schools, the churches, and many of the customs. In a quarter of a century most of the Porto Rican people have become employees upon plantations owned chiefly by Americans.

The natives work from sunup to sundown for pitifully small wages, the average not exceeding a dollar a day. Their living conditions in their small huts can be described as those of a bare existence only. In the meantime great American fortunes have been made out of the production and manufacture of sugar.

Other industries also have entered these islands. They are

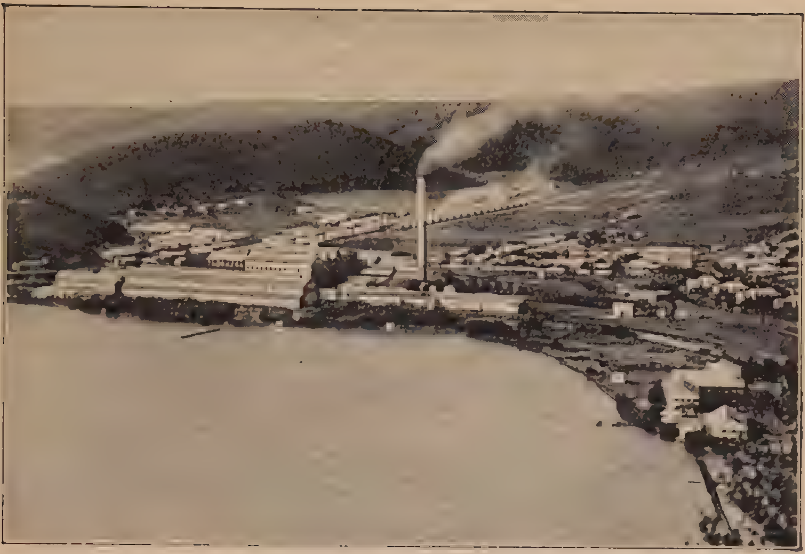

FIG. 249. An American sugar mill in Porto Rico

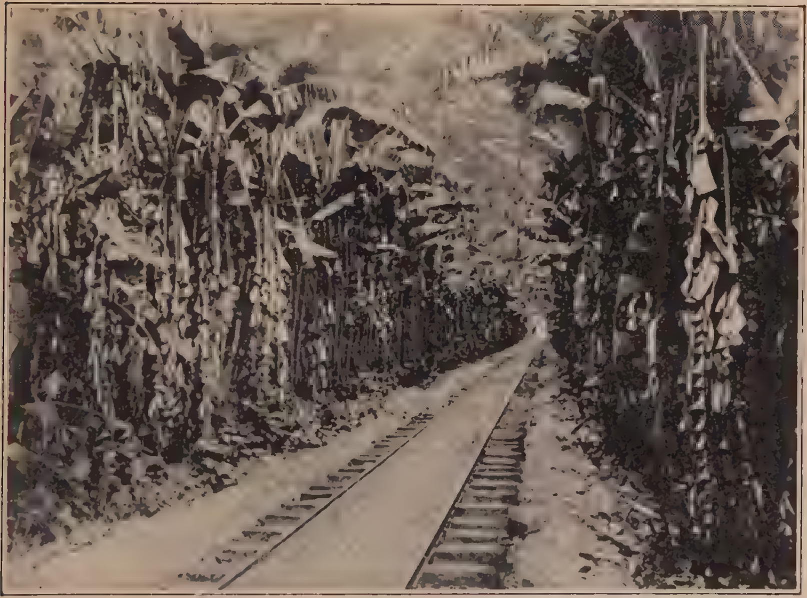

FIG. 250. A scene in an American-owned banana plantation in Central America. (Courtesy of the United Fruit Company)

chiefly those which relate to the tropical products of the islands — coffee mills, factories which manufacture cigars, cigarettes, straw hats, handmade wearing apparel, and the like. Most of these are likewise completely under the control of American and Spanish business men.

In the same way the sugar industry of Cuba was greatly influenced by American business men. Nowadays 50 to 60 per cent of the sugar exported comes to this country. American investments in the industry grew rapidly, and today Americans own many of the sugar plantations and refineries.

During the past fifteen years the United States government has also assumed control in other parts of the West Indies and Central America. In 1916 a treaty was made between the United States and Nicaragua whereby the former obtained the right to build a canal through Nicaragua sometime during the next 99 years.

You will recall that in 1914 the United States completed the building of the Panama Canal, joining the Atlantic and the Pacific. Before that time, however, the United States had already assumed a friendly supervision over Panama. In 1917 the Virgin Islands, lying near Porto Rico, were bought by the United States from Denmark.

Today, therefore, our country exercises an important influence in the affairs of the Caribbean region. It owns some of the islands and exercises supervision or a protectorate over others. Our business men with large amounts of surplus capital to invest have succeeded in developing industries and trade. The manner in which they have done this, especially since the 1870's, reminds us of the way in which British, French, and German business men were doing the same thing in other parts of the world.

V. The Growth of American Business and Industry in South America

In your study of *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* you learned of the rapid agricultural and commercial development of South America. You learned of the great resources of that continent, which before 1900 were little developed. You also learned how the Industrial Revolution helped to make South America one of the greatest food-exporting regions of the world at the present time.

Today that continent exports more than 85 per cent of the coffee of the world, 25 per cent of the wheat and wheat flour, 55 per cent of the beef, 25 per cent of the mutton, 30 per cent of the hides and skins, and 25 per cent of the wool. It has also begun to develop manufactures in a few localities.

You learned also of the great undeveloped mineral resources of the continent — the enormous deposits of high-grade iron ore and the large reserves of tin and vanadium. Bolivia today supplies one fourth of the world's tin, and Peru supplies about 90 per cent of the world's vanadium. There are also great deposits of copper, platinum, petroleum, gold, and silver. Thus, both in agricultural products and in industrial resources, South America has presented an inviting opportunity to American business men with surplus capital to invest.

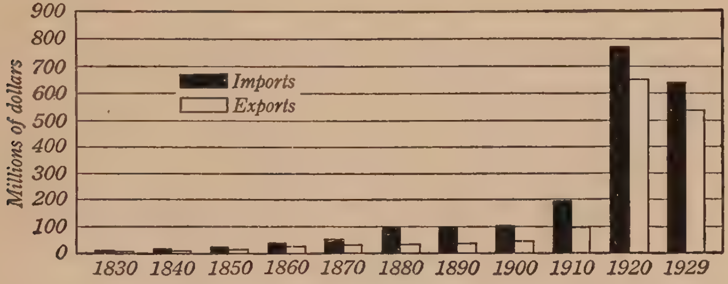

FIG. 251. United States trade with South America from 1830 to 1929

The graph of figure 251 shows that the United States was trading with South America 100 years ago. American merchant ships and fishing ships were frequent visitors in the harbors of South American countries throughout the early and middle 1800's. Even in 1830 our export and import trade with South America amounted to $10,000,000. From that year it increased slowly until 1900, when it amounted to $140,000,000. During these years British and German business men were competing with the Americans for the trade of South America.

After 1900, however, our trade grew rapidly. By 1914, at the outbreak of the World War, the total trade was more than twice that of 1900. It was at this time, after the Spanish-American War, that American engineers were sent by wealthy owners of capital into the undeveloped regions of all the continents. In South America they built railroads, discovered and opened mines of copper, tin, vanadium, gold, silver, and other metals. They aided in the development of the nitrate resources of Chile, and helped to build water supplies, and to improve roads and city streets in Argentina and other countries. The Rockefeller Foundation and other institutions in America aided in the improvement of sanitation and health throughout Central and South America.

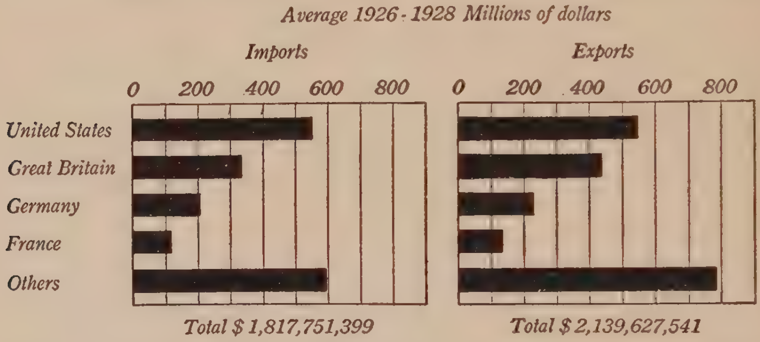

FIG. 252. The division of South American trade. Note that the United States leads in both imports and exports

By 1910 the United States ranked second with 17 per cent of the South American trade, Great Britain was first with 27 per cent, and Germany was third with 16 per cent. Then came the World War (1914–1918), when Great Britain and Germany had to turn all their efforts to war, and their trade fell off strikingly; that of the United States increased, however.

Note how the graph of figure 252 reveals the mounting American trade. In 1914 imports into the United States were a little more than $200,000,000; exports from the United States, about $100,000,000. In 1920 imports were more than $750,000,000 and exports more than $650,000,000. After the World War there was a decline in our trade with South America, while Great Britain and Germany recovered much of their trade; but, as the graph of figure 252 shows, we still hold our lead in South American trade.

VI. America's Trade with Europe is Greater than her Trade with All Other Continents Combined

We must not conclude from the foregoing examples that American business men have been more interested in Central and South America, Asia, and the islands of the Pacific than they are in Europe. The instances we have discussed have been principally examples of the establishment by American merchants of businesses of their own in lands outside of the United States. Several of them have also been examples of the way in which certain regions have been made part of the United States and brought under the American government. This was true of Hawaii, Alaska, the Philippines, and Porto Rico.

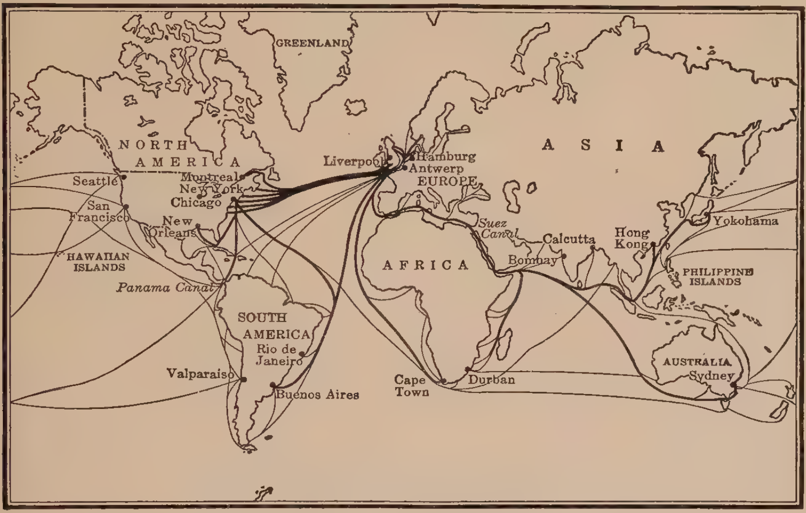
GREENLAND
NORTH AMERICA
Seattle
Montreal
New York
Chicago
San Francisco
New Orleans
HAWAIIAN ISLANDS
Panama Canal
SOUTH AMERICA
Rio de Janeiro
Valparaiso
Buenos Aires
Liverpool
Hamburg
Antwerp
EUROPE
AFRICA
Suez Canal
Cape Town
Durban
ASIA
Calcutta
Bombay
Hong Kong
Yokohama
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
AUSTRALIA
Sydney

Fig. 253. The trade routes of the world. The width of the lines indicates the importance of the trade which is carried on over them

In the case of Haiti, the Dominican Republic, Panama, and other Central American countries, American business men built plantations, factories, and established banks, but the United States did not actually make the regions a part of our country. In these instances and in those of the South American countries the chief interest has been the building of trade between America and the outside world.

We must not forget that during all the years in which American business spread into Asia and Central and South America the largest amount of American trade was with Europe. How clearly that is brought out in the map of the world's great sea paths of trade (figure 253) and the map of American world trade (figure 254)!

As you learned in *An Introduction to American Civilization* and in *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World*, it is Europe that is the greatest center of trade of the world, and it is with Europe that America has traded most.

PERCENTAGE OF AMERICAN EXPORT TRADE WITH THE VARIOUS CONTINENTS

Years	North America	South America	Europe	Asia	Oceania	Africa
1901–1905	15.3	3.2	72.3	5.3	2.0	1.9
1911–1915	21.9	5.2	64.0	5.6	2.2	1.1
1928	25.8	9.4	46.3	12.8	3.5	2.3

PERCENTAGE OF AMERICAN IMPORT TRADE WITH THE VARIOUS CONTINENTS

Years	North America	South America	Europe	Asia	Oceania	Africa
1901–1905	18.7	12.5	51.3	15.4	0.9	1.1
1911–1915	22.2	12.8	46.6	15.8	1.1	1.4
1928	23.5	13.9	30.5	28.6	1.3	2.2

One fact, however, is worthy of note: Our trade with agricultural countries is mounting. As city populations have grown and manufacturing has developed, the United States has turned more and more to agricultural countries to supply us with foods. We turn to them more and more for the raw products which keep the wheels of our growing industries turning. They not only supply us with raw products but they furnish a market for manufactured goods.

We have had several glimpses of the manner in which well-to-do persons in the United States have invested their surplus capital in other lands. The examples we have considered have taken us to the islands of the Pacific, to the arctic region of North America, and to the far reaches of the continent of South America.

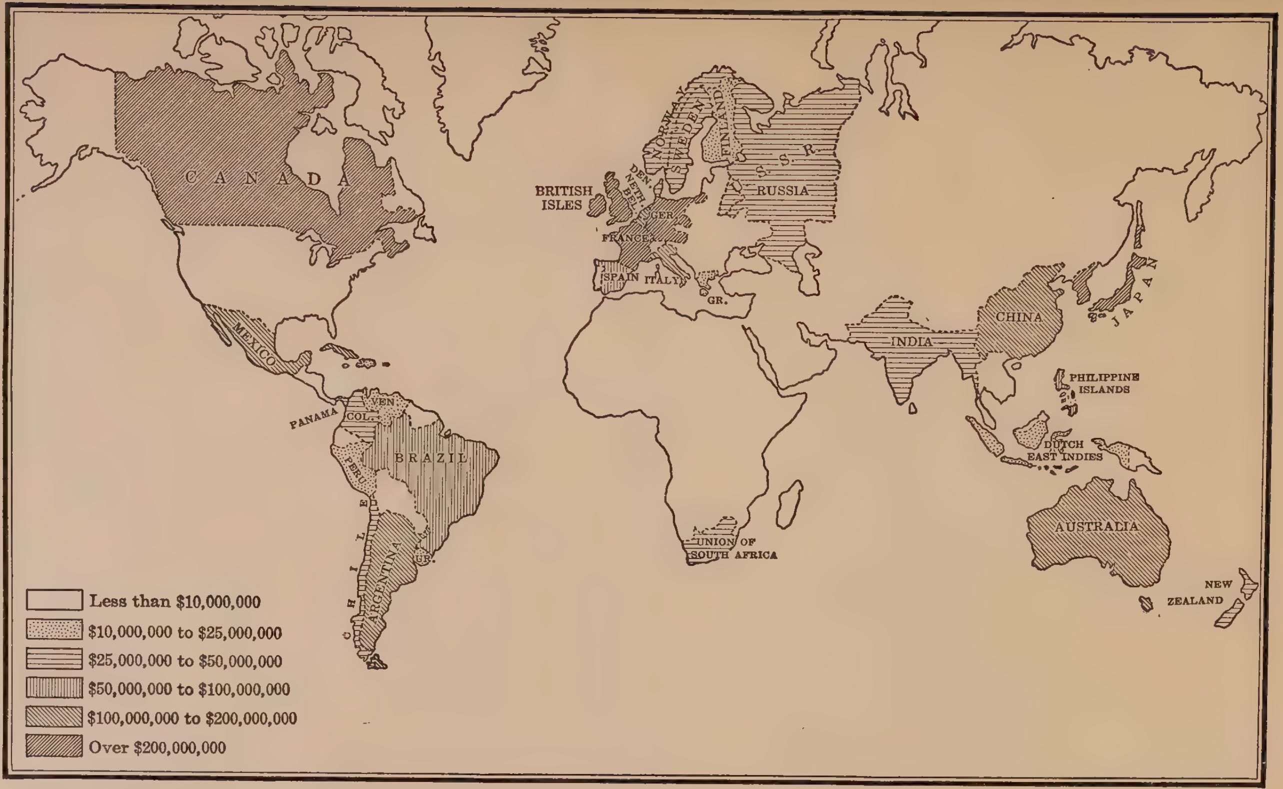
C A N A D A
MEXICO
PANAMA
COL.
VEN.
B R A Z I L
PERU
C H I L E
ARGENTINA
UR.
BRITISH ISLES
DEN.
NETH.
BEL.
GER.
FRANCE
SPAIN
ITALY
GR.
NORWAY
SWEDEN
FINLAND
U. S. S. R.
RUSSIA
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
INDIA
CHINA
JAPAN
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
DUTCH EAST INDIES
AUSTRALIA
NEW ZEALAND
Less than $10,000,000
$10,000,000 to $25,000,000
$25,000,000 to $50,000,000
$50,000,000 to $100,000,000
$100,000,000 to $200,000,000
Over $200,000,000

FIG. 254. We trade with all the world, but principally with the countries that are shaded. From 1923 to 1926 our imports and exports with five countries averaged more than $200,000,000; with eight others it averaged more than $100,000,000

In some of these regions, after the Americans had built factories, farms, and banks, they also took control of the government of the people who lived there and made the regions parts of the United States. Hawaii was taken over by America; so also were the Philippines, Porto Rico, and other scattered islands. We shall read more of that story in the next volume.

There were other lands in which Americans came to own vast properties that were not actually taken over by the United States. In these cases, however, the United States government exercised much influence over their governments. This was true in Haiti, the Dominican Republic, Nicaragua, and Cuba.

We saw also that, at the same time, America continued to trade more with Europe than with all the other parts of the earth combined.

INTERESTING READINGS FROM WHICH YOU CAN GET ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

"Hawaiian Islands," *National Geographic Magazine*, Vol. 45, February, 1924, pp. 115–238. A descriptive article richly illustrated. Read the account of sugar-producing corporations, pp. 149–153.

"Imperialistic America," *Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. 134, July, 1924, pp. 107–116. An excellent article.

"Industry in the Philippines," *Scientific American*, Vol. 129, July, 1923, pp. 28–29. Be sure to use this article.

"Oily Mexico: Horn of Plenty, or Leaky Sieve?" *Literary Digest*, Vol. 80, March 29, 1924, pp. 38–44. Be sure to use this article.

"Profit in our Insular Possessions," *Literary Digest*, Vol. 77, May 26, 1923, pp. 80–81. Very short but helpful article.

"Wells at the World's End," *Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. 133, April, 1924, pp. 513–526. Life in the Mexican oil fields.

CHAPTER XXV

AMERICA SINCE THE WORLD WAR

The drama of American economic life has passed before our eyes. We have seen events and movements take place from the earliest days of settlement to the year 1914. The story has been told of the conquest of the red man's continent. No less eventful, however, was the astonishing development of our country during the 50 years following the Civil War.

But now we come to the spring of 1914 — to the eve of still more revolutionary transformations.

America in the spring of 1914

What had our country become in the 50 years of the great industrial expansion?

1. A nation of 100,000,000 people, representing scores of nationalities, races, and cultures. Every continent and practically every country of the earth had sent people to our shores.
2. One of the world's leading industrial nations, occupying only one twentieth of the earth's land surface, but producing nearly half of the world's coal, iron, and steel, and two thirds of the world's oil.
3. A rich country in which new inventions were being turned out of great research laboratories at unheard-of speed. Great economies in production were being achieved by means of more perfect machines and hydroelectric power, and through the use of by-products.
4. A country in which raw materials, goods, and food were largely produced by machines, so that few craftsmen were needed. Machines and manufacturing processes were standardized and labor was highly specialized. Signs of mass production were found everywhere in industry.
5. A country in which hours of work and conditions of labor were remarkably improved. The working day had dropped from

ten and eleven hours to eight hours. Although the rank and file of American citizens were even yet earning hardly enough to give them a comfortable standard of living, wages had slowly increased.

6. A nation in which the general standard of living was rising rapidly. Most people were demanding as necessities articles which had previously been regarded as the luxuries of the well-to-do.
7. A country of cities and towns, with more than 40 per cent of its people living away from the farms.
8. But, in spite of the trend of population toward the cities, an almost self-sufficient agricultural country and an exporter of foods to many distant parts of the world.
9. A trader with remote peoples of the earth, a world buyer and world seller of goods.
10. The possessor of an empire and the ruler of native peoples in distant islands — the Philippines, Hawaii, Porto Rico, and others.

Thus, by the spring of 1914, the United States had developed from a small, partly settled country of immigrants from northwestern Europe into a powerful industrial nation, thoroughly cosmopolitan in population and the master of undreamed-of economic wealth.

In the spring of 1914, however, the United States was not *the leading* industrial nation of the world. It was only one of several powerful countries. Great Britain and France exceeded it in the extent of their empires. Great Britain was the center of world banking and world trade, and Germany was becoming a close rival.

America still lagged behind in the economic race of the nations. She was still regarded as a young, growing "debtor nation." Large quantities of stock in her railroads, her industrial plants, her telegraph and telephone systems, were owned by well-to-do investors in England, Germany, and other countries. Large amounts of her government bonds were likewise owned by foreigners.

Thus our country had become a power of the first magnitude, but her economic strength was not fully recognized.

In the spring of 1914 most Americans were unaware of America's coming transformation

In *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* you learned of the rather care-free life of most Europeans in 1914. You learned that they were working hard and seemed to be prospering, and that they had little understanding of the danger hanging over them. Life moved onward for most people with little thought of the fragile interdependent system of farming, manufacturing, transportation, and trade upon which their lives depended.

So also most Americans, in the spring of 1914, accepted without thought the uninterrupted running of their railroads, mills, mines, shops, and stores. Year by year they responded to the growing attractions of better clothing, more automobiles, finer houses. Rarely did they question their growing wants or the direction in which their civilization was moving.

Indeed, few Americans understood the tremendous reserve powers in the people themselves. Few ever reckoned how much food America could produce, how much coal, iron, and oil she could mine, or what great quantities of manufactured goods her mills could turn out. Moreover, most of our people had an almost childlike confidence in the unlimited natural resources of the country. Hence they were unthinkingly extravagant and there was tremendous waste — in everyday living as well as in the production of coal, iron, oil, the cutting down of the forests, and the use of the soil and its products.[1]

THEN, IN AUGUST, 1914, CAME THE WORLD WAR

War! Ways of living in every industrial country began to change faster than ever before. You know from your study of *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* how the terrible war that engaged Europe between 1914 and 1918 changed everything for several hundred millions of people. The best youth of Europe ceased their regular occupations and went to war. Farmers left their fields. Trains had to give precedence to transporting men and war materials. Factories turned to the making of the supplies and equipment of war.

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[1] In connection with this chapter, you should restudy Chapters XIV and XV of *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World.*

Not only was life changed in Europe, but also in every civilized country of the world. No country escaped the influence of the World War. When England, France, Germany, Russia, Austria, and Italy assembled their resources and powers to fight against one another, they turned to outside countries for food, for munitions, for raw materials, and for manufactured goods.

Where could they obtain these? from China? from India? from Latin America? Yes, but chiefly and more readily from the United States — the young economic giant.

Not a year passed before orders began to pour in from England and her allies for iron and steel, for guns and ammunition, for locomotives, cars, automobiles, and trucks; for food, for clothing, and for money. American farmers began to prosper as they never had prospered before. As shown in the accompanying table, they shipped five times as much corn to Europe in 1915 as in 1914; and with it nearly three times as much wheat, 40 times as much oats, twice as many potatoes, and six times as much rye.

Number of Bushels of Foods exported by the United States

	1914	1915
Corn	9,380,000	48,786,000
Wheat	92,393,000	259,643,000
Oats	1,860,000	96,810,000
Potatoes . . .	1,794,000	3,135,000
Rye	2,223,000	12,545,000

New factories were built in the United States to produce the articles demanded by warring Europe. Inventors and scientists turned out improvements on old machines and devised clever new ones. Chemists invented new uses for by-products and substitutes for articles hitherto regarded as necessities.

Since the demands of the Allied countries could be satisfied only by the use of a great merchant marine, new shipyards were opened in America. Our merchant fleets grew by leaps and bounds. In 1912 the ships flying the American flag totaled only about 1,000,000 tons. Ten years later, in 1922, the United States owned about 11,000,000 tons of ships. In the meantime the British merchant fleet remained at approximately 18,000,000 tons.

Thus between 1914 and 1917 America was able to feed her own people and also to export huge quantities of foods, raw

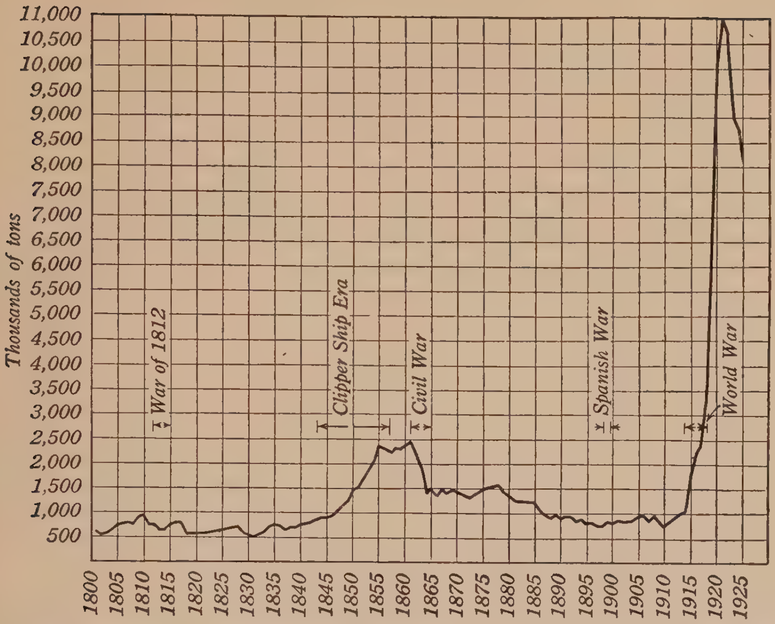

FIG. 255. Tonnage of American-owned ships engaged in foreign trade, 1800–1925

materials, and manufactured goods to Europe. The table below summarizes the record — from $1,500,000,000 worth in 1914 to $4,000,000,000 worth in 1917.

VALUE OF EXPORTS OF UNITED STATES TO EUROPE	
1914	$1,486,000,000
1915	1,971,000,000
1916	3,813,000,000
1917	4,062,000,000
1918	3,859,000,000

Then, as you already know, the United States entered the war, in April, 1917. At that time we had only 75,000 men in our navy and 128,000 in our army. Within a year and a half, approximately 4,000,000 young men were drafted into war service and trained. Hundreds of thousands of our most able-bodied youth were drawn from the farms, from factories, mines, stores, or offices. Of these, 2,000,000 were sent overseas. To do this required a staggering expenditure of money — in fact, a concentration of all the resources of the country.

Greater and still greater became the demand for food, raw materials, and goods — a demand for even greater quantities than the huge amounts already turned out between 1914 and 1917. To help in the great emergency, women entered practically every industry. They took the places of men on the farms, on trains, even in mines and mills.

At last thrift was forced upon the American people. Throughout 1918 the government regulated the amount of sugar, meat, and even of wheat that could be eaten. Meatless and wheatless days were prescribed. One by one luxuries were discarded. Many billions of dollars' worth of Liberty Bonds were sold among the people. Artisans, clerks, and unskilled laborers who had never previously saved now invested in bonds. School children purchased savings stamps.

The result was that for the first time the people recognized their stupendous reserve power. In 1918, in spite of the task of maintaining themselves at home, the Americans sent almost $4,000,000,000 worth of exports to Europe and over $2,000,000,000 worth to other continents. In 1919 the exporting of goods to all parts of the world increased even more rapidly. In 1920 it totaled more than $8,000,000,000!

Thus it was that the United States was transformed from a *debtor* to a *creditor* nation. Instead of owing money to Europeans, Americans became the creditors of the world. By 1923 the American merchant marine was a close second to that of England, which for three centuries had been the mistress of the seas.

Between 1914 and 1921 American business men took away many of Europe's customers

While the European nations were at war with one another, their trade with other lands fell off sharply. Between 1914 and 1918 those countries which had purchased goods from Germany, Russia, France, England, Italy, and other countries turned to the United States. The graph, figure 260, shows the stupendous increase in our total foreign trade during these years — from approximately $2,500,000,000 worth of exports to somewhat over $6,000,000,000. Americans were able to establish branches of their businesses in other continents and to build up a vast trade with foreign countries. It was estimated that in 1920 of the total world export of manufactured goods the business men of America supplied not less than one third.

American business continued to hold the unusual gain given it by the World War, and a remarkable era of national prosperity developed

By 1922 England, Germany, and France were beginning to recover from the effects of the war. Their mines, mills, and farms began to produce goods in increasing amounts. You have already learned of the remarkable recovery of Germany since 1923 and of the rapid strides she has taken in rebuilding her trade with other countries. Although England and France were not so successful, they too have partially recovered their foreign businesses. On the whole, however, the war gave American business men their chance to capture an increasing share of the foreign trade of the world. And as figure 260 shows, in 1929 the export trade was still double that of 1914.

The war also did something else to American business men. It accustomed them to dealing with production in larger and larger amounts. Formerly they had thought in terms of tens of thousands or possibly millions of dollars, pounds, or tons. Now they began to think and to produce in terms of millions, hundreds of millions, and even billions.

The story of a great era of prosperity is told graphically in figures 256 to 261. Notice how production continued after the war. In the mining of coal, iron, and oil — indeed, in the production of all minerals and manufactured goods — there was a great increase. Note the startling advance in manufactured goods: in 1914, $24,000,000,000; in 1919, $62,500,000,000; in 1923, $60,500,000,000; in 1927, about $63,000,000,000. The production of petroleum showed an even greater increase: in 1913 the record was 10,500,000,000 gallons; in 1918, approximately 15,000,000,000; in 1929, as many as 42,000,000,000.

An important economic commission of which Herbert Hoover was chairman reported that in 1927 the United States produced 25 per cent more minerals and other raw materials, foodstuffs, and manufactured goods than in 1919. Furthermore, during these eight years the number of people in the United States had increased only half as rapidly. Thus the increase in production brought about by the World War, which has continued

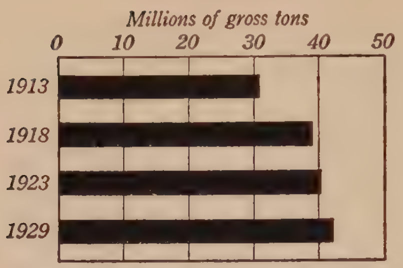

FIG. 256. American production of pig iron, 1913–1929

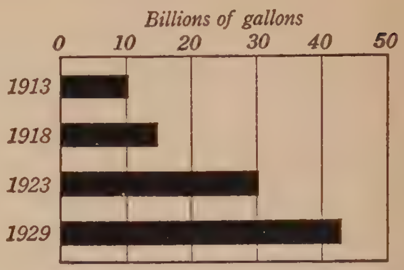

FIG. 257. American production of petroleum, 1913–1929

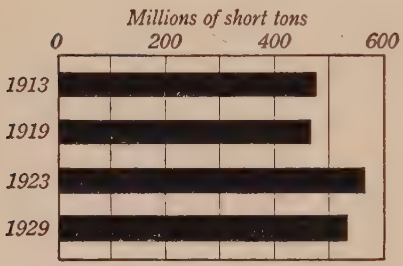

FIG. 258. American production of bituminous coal, 1913–1929

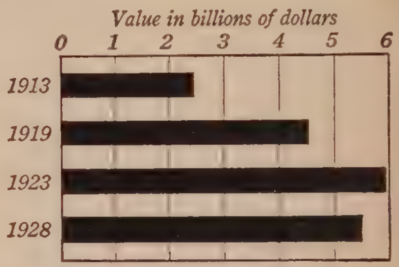

FIG. 259. American production of all minerals, 1913–1928

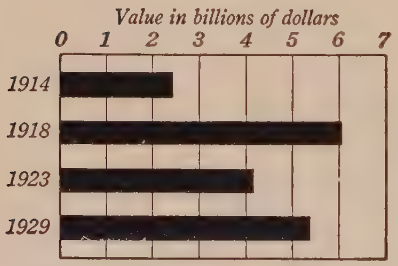

FIG. 260. American export trade, 1914–1929

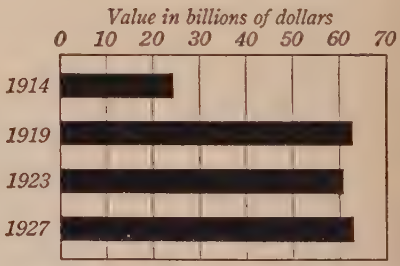

FIG. 261. American manufactures, 1914–1927

even up to the present time, is not altogether accounted for by the increase in population.

With such a stupendous increase in production of minerals, foodstuffs, and manufactured goods the national wealth grew at astonishing rates. In the first four items of the following table is summed up the development of the age of the corporation and of great industrial expansion. Then came the World War, and the whole world seemed to be doing its utmost to increase the wealth of the United States. By 1920 national wealth had increased to $350,000,000,000. Then came the new era of prosperity and in less than a decade the addition of another $100,000,000,000 to our wealth.

Increase in National Wealth, 1850–1929	
1850	$7,000,000,000
1870	25,000,000,000
1890	65,000,000,000
1912	186,000,000,000
1920	350,000,000,000
1929	450,000,000,000

Estimates by various authorities agree that the national *income* of the United States was approximately $100,000,000,000 a year at the beginning of 1930.

AFTER THE WORLD WAR THE NEW SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT AND RESEARCH SPEEDED UP THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

Throughout this series of books we have been studying the advance of the Industrial Revolution. Decade by decade, throughout the 1800's, it still moved on. Land settlement, the building of world empires, or war could not stop it. Everything seemed to increase its development. When 1900 came people thought surely things would slow down. Did they? Did the Industrial Revolution decline?

Far from it. After 1920 it sped onward, more rapidly and more effectively than ever before. So rapidly have changes come in industry since the World War that one could almost say we are now in the midst of a third Industrial Revolution. Note a few prominent examples.

Between 1919 and 1927, although population in the United States increased only about 15 per cent, the production of materials and goods increased between 30 and 40 per cent! In 1925 there were twelve times as many automobiles produced *per worker* as in 1899. There was three times as much output of tobacco; twice as much in the chemical industries; one and one half times as much in the stone and paper industries.

What accounts for the new speeding up of the production of goods? In general, of course, it is the use of machines — the practice of producing things in great quantities with standardized machines and requiring each worker to do only one special job. This we have already learned in the earlier readings of this course.

Since 1900, however, and especially since the World War, another factor has entered industry and is helping to increase the production of things. That is scientific research. Business men who in earlier days were slow to adopt new inventions, now are spending millions of dollars each year upon research. The Hoover Commission studied this problem carefully. They found that more than half of the large corporations of the country were employing professors and graduates of engineering schools and colleges. These men do not produce goods at all. They invent improvements in machines. They plan new ways of arranging work in factories, or they study the methods of work of individual laborers, or they improve the office management and accounting. In round numbers 600 corporations were spending on the average $58,000 a year for research. Certainly a new day is entering industry when business firms and manufacturing corporations pay millions in one year for salaries and expenses of men who give all their time merely to thinking out new ways of producing goods.

Has it profited the business men to do this? Let us see.

1. *Improvements in the development of power.* In 1928 a kilowatt hour of electric power could be produced with half as much coal as in 1909, before the World War. The research men discovered how to do it.

2. *Improvements in the amount of work done by machines.* In 1928 one steam shovel operated by a single man could dig as much iron ore as could be dug by approximately 500 men by hand. In 1924 one weaver could weave as much cotton sheeting by power looms, in one hour, as formerly required 106 hours. Carpets formerly requiring eight hours of handwork were finished in one hour with the machine.

AMOUNT PRODUCED PER MAN PER DAY

	By Machine	By Hand
Shoes	10 pairs	¼ pair
Nails	500 pounds	5 pounds
Coal	4 tons	½ ton
Iron	5000 pounds	500 pounds

Note in the accompanying table the comparison of production in 1923 with that at the beginning of the Industrial Revolution, 150 years before.

Of course these increases are the result of many factors working together. In part they are brought about by the improvement of machines and instruments themselves. In the most efficiently managed shops today instruments are used which will measure a piece of metal accurately within three millionths of one inch. Cutting, sawing, planing, and boring tools are now made in gigantic dimensions and work with marvelous precision. Imagine, for example, a tool which can bore a hole 60 feet in diameter through a solid mass of steel! Belt-conveyors, gravity devices, giant lifting cranes — all sorts and kinds of improved machines have been invented to increase production and save men's muscles.

Industrial concerns are also studying in their laboratories the human factors

Not only the mechanical factors, such as new machines, more accurate machines, and larger machines, have been studied scientifically, but on the human side, too, great advances are being made. Employers are arranging better conditions for their employees. Not only are hours shorter and wages higher, but factories are cleaner and safer, less noisy, and less wearing upon the worker himself. In the past 25 years industrial owners have begun to study the problems of the worker's strength and of the effects of fatigue with the same careful scientific methods that they have devoted to the improvement of their machines. The scientists have discovered important facts about how fatigue develops through the working day and week and how it reduces the output of the workers. In some plants experts have recorded with instruments exactly how much work is done per hour by employees carrying on different operations.

So manufacturers, learning from their research scientists many facts about human energy, about fatigue and loss of interest, are beginning to plan the work of the factory in accordance with these facts. For example, they are selecting the right kinds of workers for particular kinds of jobs. They are investigating what it is that holds the worker's interest in his job, reduces monotony, and thereby increases his efficiency. They are making motion-picture studies of the movements of skilled mechanics. In these and many other ways the human as well as the mechanical sides of industry are being studied.

Summing up, therefore, we see that the application of science and intelligence is one of the most important reasons for the enormous increase in our national wealth, for the increase in the production of goods, and for the raising of our economic standard of living. As you have learned throughout these books, three other factors — America's great natural resources, her varied population, her favorable location in the north temperate zone — have also played a most important part. But no less important has been this fourth great factor — the application of science to every aspect of life in America.

THE AMERICAN PEOPLE ARE CONSTANTLY DEMANDING MORE THINGS

A new conception of a desirable standard of living is forming in the minds of our people. This conception emphasizes above everything else the securing of "things." We are demanding better houses and furnishings, better clothing, and more varied food than before. In our houses we have more electric lights, more artificial heating and lighting, more plumbing, bathtubs, and artificial refrigeration, more telephones and radios, more electrical appliances, and more magazines than ever before.

We demand more changes of clothing than before the World War — more suits of clothes, more dresses, more shoes, shirts, underclothing, fancy pajamas, dressing gowns, silk stockings. Suits and dresses are pressed and cleaned and clothing is washed outside the home, by commercial agencies. Styles are changed annually and we insist on "the latest."

Similar changes are taking place in our food. We are eating less meat and wheat and more vegetables and fruit. Service in restaurants has become much more attractive, and more people are eating away from home. Families which formerly always ate at home now dine out in the evenings. One "Middletown" father said, "It's getting so a fellow has to make a date with his family to see them." There has been a great increase in the use of the delicatessen store for prepared foods and of the drug store and other places where quick lunch is served. There is a greater demand for candy, chewing gum, and other sweets.

The average American feels that he must attend the "movies" at least once if not two or three times a week. He must have a package of cigarettes a day, read at least one tabloid with its comic strips and pictorial news, watch professional athletic contests frequently, belong to a lodge, play bridge or dance at least once a week.

Mr. Stuart Chase says:

> Not long ago I walked along New York's East Side where the more poorly paid workers live. The buildings were old, slatternly, ugly and depressing beyond description. Yet, out of a ramshackle doorway would come a child in a brand-new overcoat; a girl in silk stockings and furs. The contrast struck one between the eyes.[1]

All this is part of the new American standard of living.

The automobile especially is dominating the lives of the people

No other single force, however, has been so important in radically changing ways of living in America as the automobile. In 1914 there were only about 2,000,000 automobiles in the whole country. Today there are nearly half that number in one great city, and the number is steadily growing.

A car for everybody! After 1914 millions of people visualized themselves speeding along the street in shiny elegant toys, observed with respect by neighbors who had always looked down upon them, feeling a sense of power which they had never had before in their lives. But the $600 with which to buy it! How could it be secured?

The installment plan! $100 down . . . pay the rest at $50 a month! Who could not do that? Everybody began to buy — not only merchants, manufacturers, lawyers, and doctors, but laborers, mechanics, clerks, school-teachers, and janitors as well. By 1928 nearly two thirds of the cars in the United States were being bought on the installment plan.

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[1] Stuart Chase, *Prosperity, Fact or Myth?* (Paper Books), p. 80. Charles Boni, New York, 1929.

In a recent investigation of a typical small Indiana city, Robert and Helen Lynd[1] were told by person after person that he would go without clothes or food before he would give up his automobile. They found one group of 26 families that had no bathrooms in their houses; of these, *21 owned automobiles!*

Mr. Stuart Chase, who has investigated these problems with great care, gives the following dramatic illustration of the way in which we are all buying automobiles:

INCREASE IN AUTOMOBILES IN THE UNITED STATES BETWEEN 1919 AND 1928

Year	Passenger Cars	Trucks
1919 . . .	6,771,000	794,000
1928 . . .	21,630,000	3,120,000

> Not far from where I lived in a suburban town a church was being built. Workmen were employed there for several years. When first I saw them, in 1925, they all had old Fords. The next year, they came almost without exception in Chevrolet coupés. In 1927 hardly a Ford or Chevrolet was to be seen parked in front of the church. There were Buicks, Chryslers, Nashes, and an occasional Packard or Cadillac.[2]

By 1930 more than 4,000,000 new cars were being made each year.

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF JOBS IN EXISTENCE TODAY BECAUSE OF THE AUTOMOBILE

Workers in automobile and automobile-accessories factories . .	795,000
Chauffeurs, shop-and-garage workers, salesmen, additional employees in other industries	2,937,000
Total new jobs	3,732,000

The influence of the automobile in American life is also shown by the number of new jobs it has added (see the table above).

Other examples of the increasing demand of the American people for better living

1. Food and the steady increase in health

A marked change is taking place in the amount and kinds of food eaten in the average small town of America. Mr. and Mrs.

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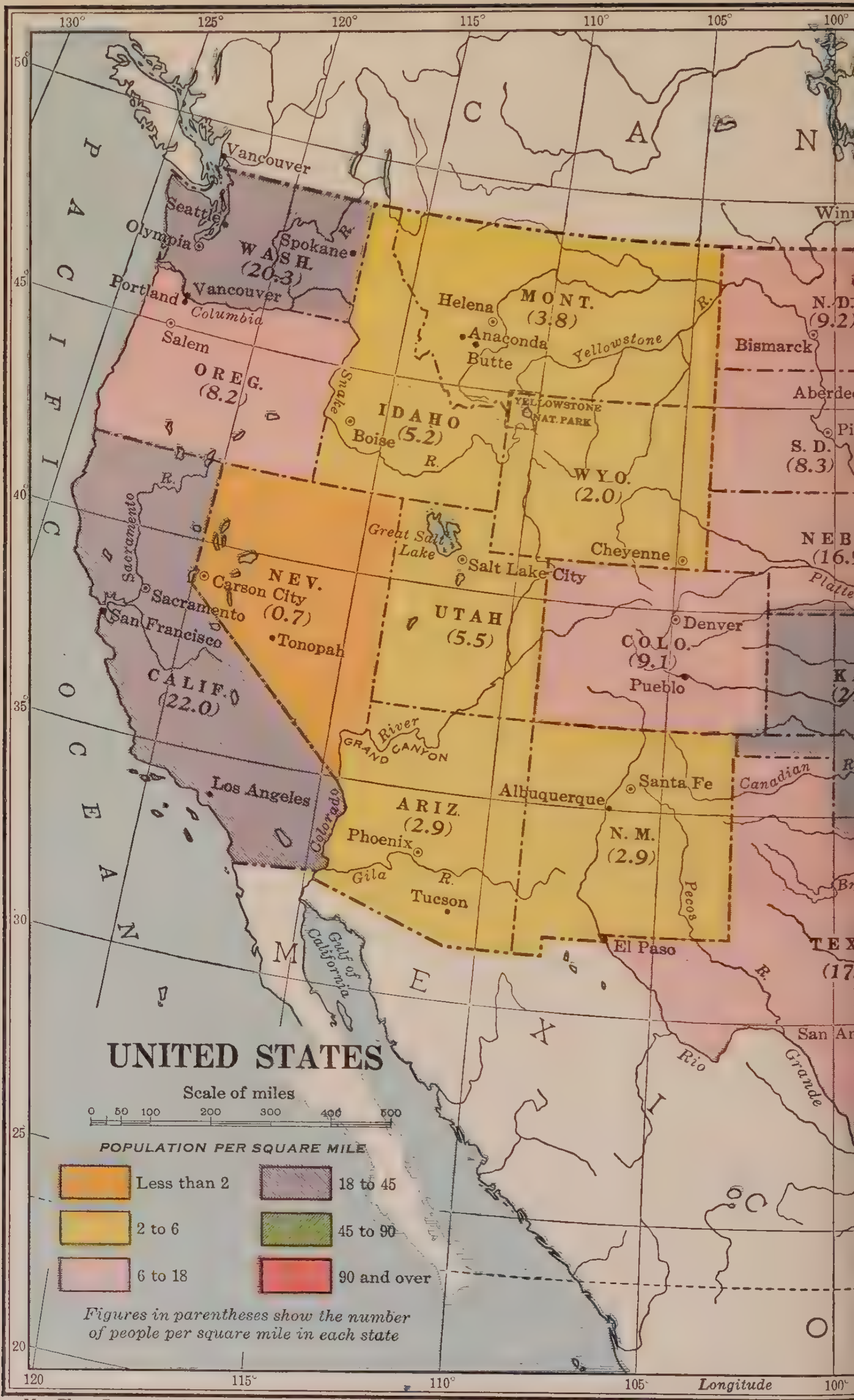
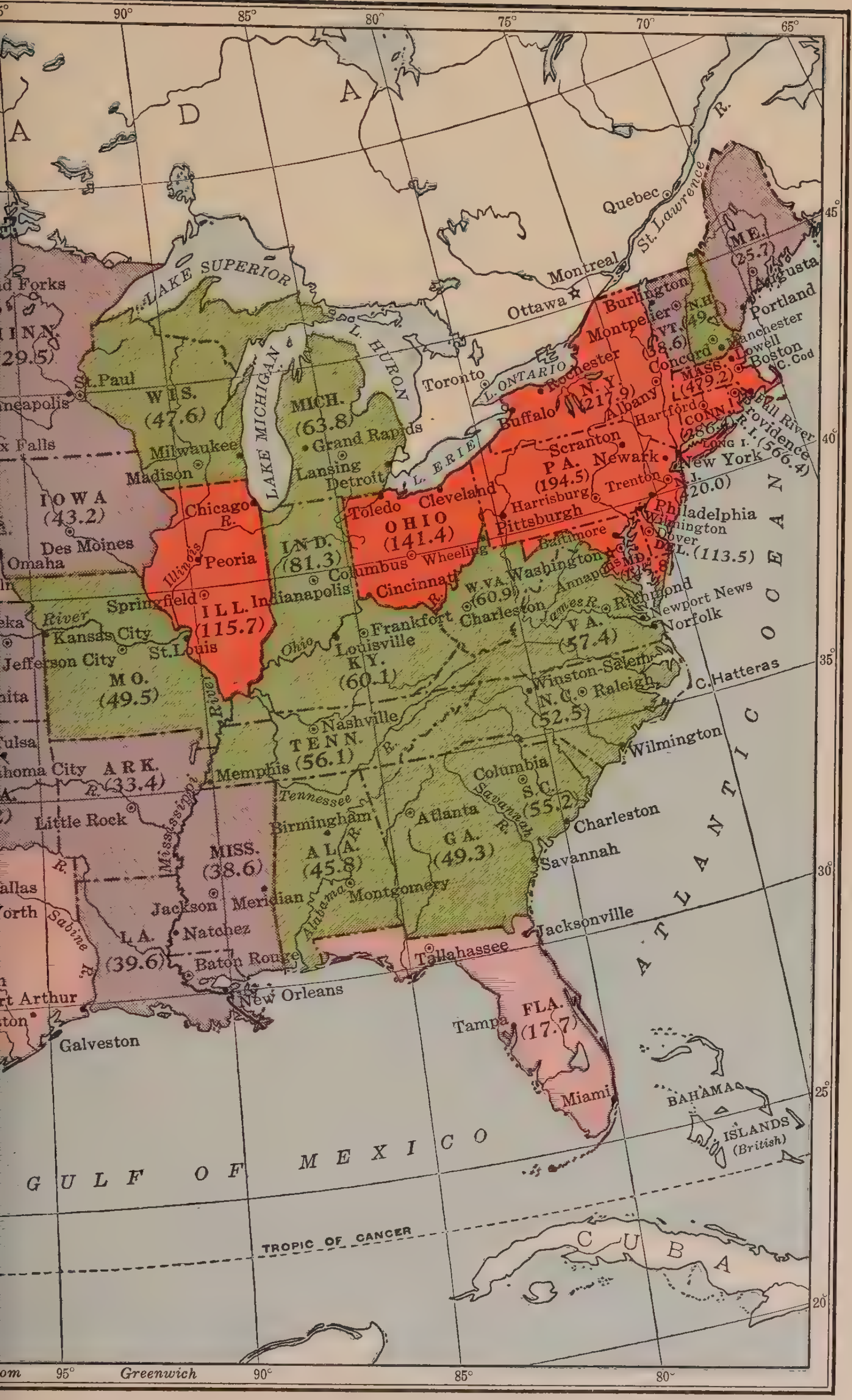
[1] Robert S. and Helen M. Lynd, *Middletown.* Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1929.

[2] Stuart Chase, *Prosperity, Fact or Myth?* (Paper Books), p. 45. Charles Boni, New York, 1929.


UNITED STATES
Scale of miles
0 50 100 200 300 400 500
POPULATION PER SQUARE MILE
Less than 2
2 to 6
6 to 18
18 to 45
45 to 90
90 and over
Figures in parentheses show the number of people per square mile in each state
PACIFIC OCEAN
CANADA
MEXICO
WASH. (20.3)
OREG. (8.2)
CALIF. (22.0)
NEV. (0.7)
IDAHO (5.2)
MONT. (3.8)
WYO. (2.0)
UTAH (5.5)
COLO. (9.1)
ARIZ. (2.9)
N. M. (2.9)
N. D. (9.2)
S. D. (8.3)
Vancouver
Seattle
Olympia
Spokane
Portland
Salem
Columbia
Sacramento
San Francisco
Los Angeles
Carson City
Tonopah
Boise
Snake R.
Helena
Anaconda
Butte
Yellowstone
YELLOWSTONE NAT. PARK
Great Salt Lake
Salt Lake City
Cheyenne
Denver
Pueblo
Grand Canyon
River
Colorado
Gila R.
Phoenix
Tucson
Albuquerque
Santa Fe
El Paso
Pecos
Rio Grande
Canadian
Platte
Bismarck
Aberdeen
Gulf of California
Longitude
130° 125° 120° 115° 110° 105° 100°
50° 45° 40° 35° 30° 25° 20°

Map Plate, Patented July 5, 1921 · Method of Making Maps, Patented July 5, 1921


90°
85°
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70°
65°
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A
LAKE SUPERIOR
L. HURON
LAKE MICHIGAN
L. ONTARIO
L. ERIE
Quebec
St. Lawrence
R.
Montreal
Ottawa
Toronto
M E.
(25.7)
Augusta
Portland
Burlington
Montpelier
N.H.
(49.
VT.
(38.6)
Concord
Manchester
Lowell
Boston
C. Cod
MASS.
(479.2)
Hartford
CONN.
(286.4)
R.I. (566.4)
Providence
Fall River
LONG I.
New York
N. Y.
(217.9)
Rochester
Buffalo
Albany
Scranton
Newark
Trenton
N.J.
(420.0)
P A.
(194.5)
Harrisburg
Pittsburgh
Philadelphia
Wilmington
Dover
DEL. (113.5)
Baltimore
MD.
(1?5.8)
Annapolis
Washington
W.VA.
(60.9)
Charleston
Wheeling
Richmond
Newport News
Norfolk
James R.
V A.
(57.4)
Winston-Salem
Raleigh
N. C.
(52.5)
C. Hatteras
Wilmington
Columbia
S. C.
(55.2)
Charleston
Savannah R.
Savannah
Atlanta
G A.
(49.3)
Jacksonville
Tallahassee
FLA.
(17.7)
Tampa
Miami
BAHAMA
ISLANDS
(British)
ATLANTIC OCEAN
d Forks
M I N N.
(29.5)
St. Paul
neapolis
x Falls
W I S.
(47.6)
Milwaukee
Madison
M I C H.
(63.8)
Grand Rapids
Lansing
Detroit
Toledo
Cleveland
O H I O
(141.4)
Columbus
Cincinnati
Chicago
R.
Illinois
Peoria
I L L.
(115.7)
Springfield
I N D.
(81.3)
Indianapolis
I O W A
(43.2)
Des Moines
Omaha
River
Kansas City
St. Louis
Jefferson City
M O.
(49.5)
Ohio
R.
Louisville
Frankfort
K Y.
(60.1)
Nashville
T E N N.
(56.1)
R.
Memphis
Tennessee
eka
ita
Tulsa
homa City
A R K.
(33.4)
R.
Little Rock
Mississippi
River
M I S S.
(38.6)
Jackson
Meridian
Natchez
Birmingham
A L A.
(45.8)
Montgomery
Alabama R.
R.
allas
orth
Sabine R.
L A.
(39.6)
Baton Rouge
New Orleans
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ston
Galveston
G U L F O F M E X I C O
TROPIC OF CANCER
C U B A
45°
40°
35°
30°
25°
20°
om
95°
Greenwich
90°
85°
80°

Lynd write of the heavy winter diet of "Middletown" in 1890, in which were "steak, roasts, macaroni, Irish potatoes, sweet potatoes, turnips, coleslaw, fried apples, and stewed tomatoes, with Indian pudding, rice, cake, or pie for dessert." Illness was frequent in the late winter and early spring because of this heavy food.

A great change is coming in our time, however. "Middletown" and thousands of other small communities are eating less meat and other heavy foods. They are buying fruit and fresh vegetables the year round, winter as well as summer. This has been made possible by modern refrigeration, swift trains, and steamships which bring the tropical fruits of the world and fresh vegetables from all over the country to our dining tables.

On the whole there is little doubt that because of the change in our food habits there is less ill health in the United States today than there was before the World War.

Naturally, the costs of food are increasing because food is hauled thousands of miles by expensive means of transportation, because advertising costs are greater, and because a larger proportion of our food is prepared before it reaches us.

2. The rapid improvement in American homes

Since the World War the tendency of our people to spend their money is illustrated by the enormous increase in the building of houses. For example, in 1928 practically twice as much building construction was completed as in 1919. The new homes are more expensive than those constructed before the World War. They are equipped with modern conveniences. In a recent investigation it was found that 68 per cent of all modern houses contained set bathtubs and 82 per cent had flush toilets. This is an enormous gain since 1890. One economic commission reported that "bathtubs in use per 1000 of city folks have doubled since 1913." It is estimated that in city houses not less than 1,000,000 new bathtubs are being installed each year. In 1929 there were 18,000,000 bathtubs in city homes, that is, about one to every five persons.

A similar increase is shown in the installation of electric lights (see accompanying table). It is estimated that more than 85 per cent of all village, town, and city inhabitants now use electric lights. Furthermore, an increasing number of farmers have their homes wired for electric lights and receive power from distant stations.

Number of Houses in United States wired for Electric Current	
1913	3,100,000
1928	17,600,000

Facilities for telephone communication have likewise increased rapidly since the World War. The accompanying table shows how well city people are provided for. In 1928 there were in the United States 18,522,767 telephones.

Number of Telephones per 1000 City People	
1920	61
1929	95

It is indeed becoming the electric age. Electric appliances are entering even the poorer American homes. In 1928 there were, in round numbers, 27,000,000 homes in the United States. More than half had electric flatirons. One fourth had vacuum cleaners, and one fifth had washing machines and electric fans. Indeed, today many electric devices and appliances — such as radios, electric refrigerators, vacuum cleaners and electric sewing machines — which were rare luxuries in 1914 are to be found in millions of American homes.

ARE ALL AMERICANS SHARING IN THIS RISING STANDARD OF LIVING?

It is clear, therefore, that, compared with other countries, America is becoming prosperous. Certainly from our study of *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* we can see that our people have better houses, more food, better clothing, shorter hours of work, and more varied recreations. Furthermore, our people have many more things to live with than their fathers had 100, 50, or even 25 years ago. The nation as a whole is better off.

But are individual citizens better off? What about the common man, one of the rank and file of the people? Is the man in the street happier than he was in 1865 or 1900 or 1914? Is life more worth living?

These important questions are exceedingly difficult to answer. No doubt, no two Americans would answer them in the same way. The business man would say: "Yes, the country *is* prosperous. People *are* happy. Life *is* more worth living." He might say this because of the huge amount of goods produced and sold. But the mechanic, the clerk, the average man, might have a different answer because he would be thinking of how hard it is for him to get a good living for his family.

We must always remember that being "better off" is a relative condition. At any given time the relationship between wages and costs, together with the *general* standard of living, determines whether or not the individual is better off than he was at some other time. Under a low standard of living, little is required. If wages and costs are both high but are fairly well balanced, it is possible to maintain comfortably a high standard of living. But under a high standard of living, if costs rise above wages, one may have what would formerly have seemed like a good income, he may have what formerly would have been considered as comfortable surroundings, with many modern conveniences, and still, in comparison with what the general standard demands, he may find it difficult to get a good living. Since the problem is so very important and so difficult, let us study the facts carefully.

Suppose the national income were distributed equally among the people

We saw that the income of the entire nation has been increasing by leaps and bounds since the World War. In 1930 it was not less than $100,000,000,000. If this huge national income had been distributed equally, each man, woman, and child in the country would have had about $800 to spend. Since American families average approximately four and one-half persons, each family would have received $3600 in one year.

ESTIMATED ANNUAL INCOME PER INHABITANT, 1913–1928[1]

1913	$621
1917	656
1923	679
1926	733
1928	742

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[1] Data from 1913 to 1926 inclusive are from *Recent Economic Changes in the United States* — Report of the Committee on Recent Economic Changes of the President's Conference on Unemployment, Herbert Hoover, Chairman; including the reports of a special staff of the National Bureau of Economic Research. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1929.

Is this enough to provide food, shelter, and clothing? Does it allow for recreation, vacations, and holidays? Will it be sufficient to pay doctors' and dentists' bills or to pay for insurance?

In recent years various groups of expert economists have been studying these questions carefully. These groups agree that in round numbers $2000 is the minimum annual income upon which an average-sized American family can live in decency under the present high standard of living. It is the least upon which five persons can maintain a small but substantial, moderately well-furnished house or apartment, regular meals of simple and well-balanced proportions, and simple but ample clothing. This minimum does not provide for recreation, for vacations, for extra comforts, for savings, or for insurance. It provides merely decent healthful existence.

A minimum of $2000 is needed, and $3600 would be available — *if the income of the American people were divided equally among them all.* Yes, undoubtedly, if that were done the national income is sufficient today to support us all in fair comfort.

HOW THE NATIONAL INCOME IS ACTUALLY DIVIDED AMONG THE PEOPLE

1. The share of the owning class

But the income of the nation is not distributed equally among all the people. Using the Federal income tax statistics[1] the Hoover Commission estimated that in 1925 *the richest one tenth of the people received approximately one third of the entire income.* In round numbers there were then 27,000,000 families in America.

The richest 10 per cent received $27,000,000,000.
The remaining 90 per cent received $54,000,000,000.
The richest 10 per cent of American families averaged $10,000 a year.
The remaining 90 per cent averaged $2200 a year.

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[1] Each year, on or before March 15th, each married person and each single person whose incomes reach certain sums report to the Federal government the amount of income for the previous year. Summaries of these figures are published in an annual official report. It is from these reports that we have obtained the facts concerning the distribution of the annual income. It is clear that they do not overstate the income of our people. If anything they understate it.

These figures are but averages, and we know that there were several million people in 1925 who were not receiving an income of $2200 or even one large enough to maintain themselves with the minimum degree of safety and comfort which the social experts declare is necessary under our present standard of living.

The most startling fact to be found in these reports is the one presented in the following table, namely, that a very few people now receive huge incomes, and a considerable number receive large incomes. The mass of the people, however, receive barely enough to live on.

10 Americans received $5,000,000 or more.
283 Americans received $1,000,000 or more.
11,000 Americans received between $100,000 and $1,000,000.
33,000 Americans received $50,000 or more.
82,000 Americans received between $25,000 and $50,000.
250,000 Americans received between $10,000 and $25,000.

What do the owners do to earn these huge incomes of $50,000 or more? Is this money paid them as salaries for services? No, only 2 per cent of these incomes is earned in that way; *about 80 per cent of them come from dividends declared on stock owned in our great corporations and from the increases in the capital of the corporations.* The income of the owners is not mainly from wages or salaries, not from farms, not directly from hand or brain labor, but from the profits made in corporations — mining corporations, manufacturing corporations, railroad corporations, telegraph and telephone corporations, automobile corporations, department stores, and other kinds of trading corporations.

Thus the corporation again plays a rôle in American life. Again we see the significance of calling this age in which we are living the age of the corporation. It is corporations using machines and standardized mass-production methods that produce most of our food, shelter, and clothing. In 1926 the corporations of the United States made a net profit of more than $8,000,000,000. On the average they earned 7 per cent on their net worth. Those engaged in building construction made as high as 11 per cent profits in one year. Others made 15, even 20 per cent. It is the profits from corporations that give our well-to-do people the largest share of their wealth.

How do these well-to-do owners of American property spend their huge incomes? The wealthiest do not spend them, cannot spend them — at least, on themselves. Experts say that from one fifth to one third of these fortunes is given away each year. Some of the money goes to universities, colleges, and schools, to charity organizations, and to libraries. Another share goes to hospitals, to scientific institutes and research laboratories, to experiment stations, and to medical clinics. Still another is given to cities and states for parks and monuments. Whether such worth-while enterprises would have been built up by the people themselves if the money had been distributed among them, we have no sure knowledge.

Approximately one third of this vast income of the well-to-do is taken by the Federal, state, and local governments in taxes — income taxes, inheritance taxes, property taxes.[1]

Finally, between one fifth and one third of this enormous income of the well-to-do is reinvested in the stocks and bonds of corporations. Thus "money makes money" and the income of the owning class becomes greater and greater.

2. The share of the middle class in the national income

In addition to the group who own most of the property in America, the Industrial Revolution produced another great group of people — a fairly large middle class. In general they are the people who earn a living, not by hand skill but by head skill. These are the clerks in stores and offices, superintendents, department heads, foremen, bosses, small storekeepers, floorwalkers, accountants, doctors, lawyers, teachers, writers, actors, and government employees. Although the work of many of them is done with instruments and tools, the work of most of them is concerned chiefly with ideas.

Remember that there are no clearly marked-off limits to this so-called middle class. It is hard to say in many instances whether a given worker is in the owning class, the middle class, or the labor class. He may really belong to all three.

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[1] The income from the taxes helps to run our government. A small amount of it pays the salaries of local, state, and national officials, department superintendents, clerks, and engineers. By far the larger proportion of it, however, — certainly more than 80 per cent, — is used *for military equipment.* With this money great battleships and fleets of war airplanes, costing millions of dollars, are built. It also equips and maintains our standing army.

What share of the national income does this middle class receive? That is exceedingly difficult to estimate. The group includes some individuals whose incomes are very large — larger indeed than many of the so-called owning class. For example, in our largest cities there are lawyers, physicians, writers, and engineers who receive as much as $100,000 a year or more. Many of these people also belong definitely to the owning class. On the other hand, teachers in rural schools receive less than $900 a year! Teachers in village schools receive not more than $1300; high-school teachers in medium-sized towns, from $1600 to $1800; bank clerks, certainly not more than $1800; and experienced clerks in department stores in medium-sized towns, probably about $1800. In many offices file clerks and typists receive not more than $1000 and telephone-operators from $1000 to $1200.

At the same time there are in the so-called labor class — the hand workers — locomotive engineers who receive as much as $4000; masons and plumbers who receive $4500; carpenters in union trades in large cities who receive $3500. Therefore remember the difficulty in estimating *accurately* what income these three classes receive.

For example, consider the small shopkeepers. There are in the United States about 750,000 owners of little stores and shops each of which in a year will do less than $25,000 worth of business. In one large city an investigation was made of the business of these small shops. One third were found to do less than $7 worth of business in a day! Even if they earned a very high rate of profit, which they do not, how much annual income could be expected from the business of such small shops? Would one of them produce a comfortable living for a family of five?

Within this great middle-class group, college teachers stand somewhat above the average, receiving approximately $3000 a year. In a recent year the average salaries of banking employees was $2200. Mr. Stuart Chase says that he doubts if the so-called brain workers (of the middle class) average much more than $2000 — even including the professional celebrities who receive $100,000 a year and up. As a class they have incomes below the average of those received for skilled manual labor but somewhat above those received by the whole working class.

Thus this "white collar" class is indeed the middle class. It receives the middle-sized income. In earning power its members are the average citizens. But it is doubtful, as we have said, whether half of them are receiving enough to maintain their families according to a minimum comfortable standard of living.

3. The share of the labor class in the national income

Now we come to the labor class. Economists have estimated that nearly three fourths of our people belong to this group. The remaining one fourth belong to the business class (owners and middle-class people).

What annual income are these people receiving? We have four good investigations to help us answer that question.

Average Annual Income of Employees in Various Occupations, 1925

Agriculture	$537
Merchandising	1315
Mining	1318
Manufacturing	1362
Transportation and other utilities	1554
Construction	1574
Government work	1585
Banking	2179
Unclassified	1408
Average of all groups	$1426

The first study. The Hoover Commission reported the average annual incomes of workers in various industries and lines of employment. These are given in the accompanying table.

Since there were on the average about one and one half workers in each family, the income per family in these representative occupations was approximately $2100 ($1426 × 1.5). This checks fairly well with the estimate of the average income per family for the poorest 90 per cent of the people, stated in a foregoing table.

A second study. In 1924 Mr. and Mrs. Lynd made a careful estimate of the amount of income needed in "Middletown" to maintain a decent standard of living. Their estimate, $1920, agreed fairly closely with the results of the Hoover study.

How many families in "Middletown" received $1920 or more? Less than 10 per cent! As many as 90 per cent of the people in this typical, Middle Western city received less than the minimum income required to maintain life decently. In another study Mr. and Mrs. Lynd tabulated the actual incomes of 100 working-class families in this city: of these families 74 received less than $1920; the average for the 100 families was a little less than $1500.

A third study. A report by the New York Department of Labor of the incomes of 536 working-class families states that "half of the families had an income which was less than the amount necessary to maintain a standard of living at a minimum of decent subsistence for a family of 5." Furthermore, wages were so low in this group that 83 per cent of the mothers took in work which they did in their homes. From this work they received on the average $6 a week, or about $300 a year.

A fourth way in which we can check our estimates of the income of the labor class. We know that the average wages of industrial workers throughout the United States are about 60 cents an hour. Assuming an eight-hour day and 300 working days in a year, the average annual wage per worker is $1440. This amount checks fairly closely with the estimates of the Hoover Commission. We know, however, that the average worker does not work 300 days a year. In many occupations he is "laid off" a fifth or more of the time. Hence the actual income per worker is probably not more than $1200, and of the family, $1800 a year.

Remember that the skilled laborer earns more than the unskilled laborer in the same industry. There are also great differences among the incomes of various occupations in the labor class. In certain skilled industries, — for example, the building trades in large cities, — laborers are very well paid. Government statistics for 1927 show that trades in which labor unions are strong in the large cities have an average wage of $1.32 an hour. This is more than twice as much as skilled workers generally receive. Carpenters in New York City receive $1.50 an hour; bricklayers in St. Louis, $1.75. Thus we see that skilled workers in some trades probably earn $2500 to $3000 a year. These are able to maintain their families in considerable comfort.

In sharp contrast with their conditions, however, are those of the unskilled laborers who, for the United States as a whole, do not receive over $1000. In the South their average annual wage is no more than $700.

It is clear, therefore, that although workers in a few of the skilled industries are receiving on the average more than $3000 a year, the mass of laborers have less than half that amount to live upon. The typical worker in industry probably receives less than $1500 a year. With a wife and children adding to the family income, it is probably true that in each of the sections of the country, except the South, the majority of workers' families receive just about enough income to maintain life decently.

Nevertheless, all classes are aspiring to a higher standard of living and are trying to live according to it. Even in the midst of slatternly, unhealthful houses and neighborhoods, young women are insisting on silk stockings. Families go to the "movies" two or three times a week. All but the dwellers in large tenements in the cities feel that they must have an auto.

The standard of living which is demanded by the working-class families of America is believed to be higher than their income justifies. Hence they are always in debt. Perhaps there is no more important economic problem before our people today than that of buying on the installment plan, that is, living on credit. Individuals and communities alike have adopted the habit of living on the future. Will individuals as well as communities become bankrupt as a result? Only the developments of the next few years can tell.

Let us sum up our picture of the economic conditions of the working class by quoting Mr. Chase's description of an "average labor-class family":

> Here is a typical family of five. The father is 49, the mother 46, there are three boys of 19, 13, and 10 respectively. The oldest boy is in a small local college. The father is employed fairly steadily at semi-skilled shop work. The mother works continuously in a factory in order that the boys can go through high school and college. "In a recent stretch of unemployment the oldest boy borrowed $125 to keep on with his schooling, both parents going on the note. The family manages by all buckling to the common job: husband and boys have taken over much of the housework. The boy of ten has dinner ready when the family gets home at noon."[1]

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[1] Stuart Chase, *Prosperity, Fact or Myth?* (Paper Books), pp. 93–94. Charles Boni, New York, 1929.

4. The farmer's share of the national income

There remains to be considered one other large group of workers — the farmers. It is difficult to place the farmers in one of the "classes" of the American people. Are they owners? Are they of the middle class? Are they members of the labor class? It is hard to say, for there is no such thing as an "average farmer." Some farmers belong to one class, some to another. Hence we shall discuss them briefly as a class by themselves.

In America, in 1927, there were approximately 6,000,000 farms. On these were living about 6,371,000 farmers and about 3,000,000 farm laborers. The farm laborers were working for a regular wage — a wage which was relatively much higher in 1929 than in 1914. Approximately two thirds of these farmers were owners or part owners. One third of them were tenants. They varied all the way from very wealthy large-scale landlords to poverty-stricken tenants.

You have read in *An Introduction to American Civilization* (p. 420) of Thomas Campbell. Today he is part owner in an 80,000-acre farm. He and his partners carry on farming as a mass-production affair, using vast amounts of modern machinery. At the other end of the scale from him are thousands of small farmers, such as the New England apple-growers, who skimp along on 20 or 30 acres. Between Colonel Campbell and the New England apple-grower, farmers and farms range themselves — the Iowa corn-raiser, the Florida citrus-fruits grower, the Kansas or North Dakota wheat man, the Michigan potato-planter. The sizes of farms and the incomes of the farmers vary enormously.

Although it is clear that there is no such thing as an "average farmer," we must nevertheless discuss the share of the farmer in terms of average incomes.

How has the farmer fared while the business class of America has been prospering? To answer this question let us compare what farmers receive for their crops with what they pay for their supplies. This will give us one measure of their prosperity.

In 1918 Farmers received for crops twice as much as in 1914.
Farmers paid one and three fourths as much for supplies as in 1914.

In 1923	Farmers received one and one third as much for crops as in 1914.
	Farmers paid one and one half as much for supplies as in 1914.
In 1927	Farmers received one and one third as much for crops as in 1914.
	Farmers paid one and one half as much for supplies as in 1914.

Two conclusions can be drawn from these facts. First, farmers were prosperous during the World War and at its close. In 1918 they were receiving relatively more than they had to pay for their supplies — as compared with 1914.

Second, since that time the economic condition of the farmer has grown steadily worse. Both in 1923 and in 1927 the rank and file of farmers were paying relatively more for their supplies than they received for their crops — as compared with 1914.

Many attempts have been made to find out what the farmer's income really is. They have all failed to give us definite information. You can readily perceive the chief difficulty, namely, that the farmer himself is not paid a weekly or monthly wage. He plants, cultivates, and harvests his crop — generally on borrowed money. He sells it for the best price he can get. His expenses and his profits are almost impossible to ascertain. Some of his income lies in the food that comes from his own garden. How much this is, it is impossible to determine. Hence the difficulty of arriving at an exact statement of the farmer's income.

Nevertheless, prominent economic experts on the Hoover Commission did the best they could with the facts available. They compared the incomes of farmers with those of other Americans. They estimated that in 1919 the average person living on a farm was receiving only 57 per cent as much annual income as was the average American throughout the country. In 1928 the situation was even worse; he was receiving only 40 per cent as much. It is clear, therefore, that the farmer is steadily losing while the rest of Americans are slowly gaining in income.

However, the farm-owner always has one real advantage over the city worker. No matter how hard conditions are for him, no matter how much he lacks in money, he still has his house and his land on which he can raise a living.

In spite of his hard times the American farmer, like the city dweller, insists upon modern conveniences

On the 6,000,000 farms of the United States there are today more than 4,500,000 motor cars. Poor or not, three fourths of our farmers insist on having automobiles. In recent years the majority have introduced sanitary plumbing and have wired their houses for electric lights. They read daily newspapers. They drive into town frequently to the "movies." The radio brings the daily stock-market reports, the latest news events of the world, and jazz and classic music from metropolitan centers hundreds of miles away. In an increasing number of farmhouse living rooms one can find the latest magazines and books.

Thus the American farmer is refusing to accept the low standard of living of his forefathers. Unlike the European or the Asiatic or the South American farmer, he will not be a peasant. He too is insisting upon a higher standard of living.

ONE OF AMERICA'S MOST DISTRESSING PROBLEMS: INCREASING UNEMPLOYMENT

But now we discover a most astonishing situation.

In prosperous America millions of people who want and need work cannot get it. Since the close of the World War the number has been increasing. Masses of skilled and unskilled workers are unemployed.[2]

During the eight years 1920 to 1927 inclusive, there were out of work, on the average, nearly 8 per cent of all the city workers. One out of thirteen was unemployed.

ESTIMATED UNEMPLOYED WORKMEN IN THE UNITED STATES, 1920–1927[1]

1920	1,401,000
1921	4,270,000
1923	1,532,000
1925	1,775,000
1927	2,055,000

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[1] These figures have been compiled by Mr. Wesley C. Mitchell, one of the ablest students of industry in the United States. See the footnote on page 601.

[2] This is being written in 1930. United States census enumerators are now at work gathering information about economic matters in the United States. In studying this problem as well as many others you should have a complete set of the reports of the United States census of 1930. These will be available sometime in 1931. Write to the Superintendent of Public Documents, Washington, D. C. In these reports you will find the most accurate tabulation for 1930 of unemployment in the United States.

There used to be two old sayings in common use: "Anyone who wants to get a job can find one," and "There is a job for everyone in this world." These seem no longer to be true. At least many of our best students of industry, business, and the professions are beginning to question them. A very serious situation is arising in industrial civilization. People who really want to work, people who must work in order to eat, are not able to find jobs.

An investigation of working families late in 1929 showed that more than one sixth of them were without jobs. Early in 1930 it was estimated that there were between 3,000,000 and 4,000,000 people out of work. This is one tenth of the workers of the United States.

Mr. and Mrs. Lynd investigated the problem in their study of "Middletown" in 1924. They got the most distressing reports from the working families in that town. Wives told such stories as these:

> "He [her husband] can't tell when he'll be laid off. One day he comes home thinking the work is over and the next day he believes it will last a few days longer."

Or,

> "He's to be laid off Saturday."

Again,

> "I know people that have been out of work since June and they're almost crazy."

Another,

> "We've been saving to buy a home, but lost all our savings paying rent when he was laid off."

Or,

> "He is forty and about ten years from now will be on the shelf. A pattern-maker isn't much wanted after forty-five. They always put in the young men. Well, what will we do? Well, that's just what I don't know; we are not saving a penny."[1]

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[1] Robert S. and Helen M. Lynd, *Middletown*. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1929.

These statements mean hard work from morning till night plus constant worry lest there be no work to do. Hundreds of thousands of families hope that old-age pension laws will be passed by the government, so that they won't have to go to the poorhouse when they become old.

Even "middle age" is dreaded by the workers. Factory superintendents are beginning to agree with someone who said: "The age dead line is creeping down on those men. I say that by 45 they are through."

What causes unemployment in such a prosperous industrial civilization?

Are the factories not running? Are railroads not moving their trains? Are not buildings being built, stores being kept open? Yes, we have just seen that most American industries and businesses are running close to full speed. Mass production has increased by leaps and bounds. We are simply overwhelmed with the volume of goods that is being turned out. The reason for unemployment is more fundamental than the shutting down of factories and stores and mines.

It is this: clever machines are taking work away from men.

But, perhaps you exclaim, "They always have! Cartwright's loom did! Howe's sewing machine did! Machines have always done that."

Yes, but there are two very real differences between the effect of the new machines today and those invented in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. In the first years of the Industrial Revolution inventions in a particular industry or trade came *slowly*. Only small numbers of men were thrown out of work at one time. They could find work in other factories or in other trades. Then, too, although the new machines did throw men out of work temporarily, in the long run they created *more* jobs, gave work to more men.

At that time the world was not oversupplied with goods. Orders kept coming for the new manufactures, and work was available for nearly all people. Especially was that true in a "new" unsettled country like the United States.

Today thousands of research experts are working steadily, perfecting old machines or inventing new ones. As you know, corporations are spending millions on inventions alone. The result is that scarcely a month passes but some improvement in industry puts workers out of employment. Here are ten instances. Remember that they can be multiplied a hundredfold.

1. *Number of men required to run a subway train in New York City.* Only a few years ago, 11; today, because of automatic machinery, one motorman and one guard.
2. *Cashiers and platform men in New York subways.* Only recently, 1500 men. Nickle-pay-as-you-enter machines were invented, and today there are less than 500 workers.
3. *Four hundred switchmen and brakemen permanently laid off.* Because of invention of machinery for handling freight cars on a large Eastern railroad.
4. *Fourteen men were required to "charge" a steel furnace.* New machines were invented, and two men are now sufficient. One man today casts as much pig iron as nine formerly did — eight unemployed!
5. *Stokers to shovel coal into fire boxes of ocean liners.* A hundred men were required. Oil-burners and automatic fueling machines make it possible for three men to fuel a ship!
6. *The automatic dial telephone eliminates thousands of human operators.*
7. *Cigars and cigarettes made by machines.* More unemployed persons on the street.
8. *The "movies" become "talkies."* Thousands of musicians out of a job!
9. *Automatic selling machines enter the retail trade.* In 1929 they sold $50,000,000 worth of goods. What does this promise for retail salesmen's jobs in the future?
10. *One bank formerly had 67 employees.* It introduced bookkeeping and accounting machines and got rid of 59 workers.

These are only ten typical instances out of hundreds that could be given. Think of similar cases of men and women thrown out of work — not only in a few cities, but in thousands of communities in America. One official report recently published says that between 1920 and 1927 over 600,000 workers were dropped from factories "because of the increase in efficiency" of the plants. The same thing is happening in mines, in railroads, in ships, in offices — in every branch of industry and trade.

For the first time in the world's history, the industrial experts tell us, our machine civilization has become so efficient that millions of people cannot find work. The problem is so new, it has been forced upon us so suddenly, that we have not learned how to solve it. In subsequent volumes of this series we shall meet it again.

Summing up, then, these are the stirring developments since the eve of the World War, in the spring of 1914. These are the movements which are creating problems of supreme importance and grave difficulty. This is the new Industrial Revolution, which is transforming America more rapidly than ever before.

How do the gains and the losses of industrial civilization compare with each other?

What are the promises of American economic life for the future?

These difficult questions we shall consider in the subsequent volumes of this series. In the next chapter, however, we shall summarize briefly the evidence upon them.

CHAPTER XXVI

AMERICA FACES THE FUTURE

Summing up the chief tendencies in our rapidly changing civilization

Let us gather up the threads of the history of land and industry in American civilization.

We saw, first, how a few thousand Europeans settled upon the eastern shores of the red man's continent.

We learned how they, in a century and a half, built farms, villages, and towns on the Atlantic coastal plain; how they multiplied in numbers; how they developed a prosperous trade among themselves and with other countries.

We saw briefly their struggles to establish a democratic government in the thirteen colonies. We had glimpses of the Revolution, in which they freed themselves from their English masters and developed an independent government — the United States of America.

Throughout the story of the next 150 years of American history, one theme held our attention — the hunger of the new American for land. For more than a century after the founding of the Republic, millions of land-hungry homesteaders claimed the wilderness and transformed it into a modern nation of farms, mines, villages, factory towns, and trading cities. Then by the 1880's the Americans found that they had taken up all the land — the last frontier had disappeared. By that time the whole continent was tied together in a unified nation of 60,000,000 people.

In the meantime the Industrial Revolution had developed even more rapidly in America than in England and western Europe. A great industrial zone of towns and cities had grown up north of the Ohio and east of the Mississippi. Before the World War had come, the new America was producing half of the world's coal and iron, two thirds of the world's oil, and far more than its proportion of other minerals, foodstuffs, and manufactured goods.

During this period its standard of living had risen to a point far beyond that of any other country in the world. This was made possible by a favorable climate, a vast accumulation of natural resources, and an ambitious, growing, and energetic population of mixed races and nationalities. These people applied the methods of modern science and engineering and helped to produce a new civilization, utterly unlike any which the world had ever known before.

Modes of living changed rapidly. The handicraftsman became a skilled machine-tender. Hamlets grew into villages, towns became manufacturing and trading cities. Labor became highly specialized. Capital became concentrated in the hands of a small number of energetic and capable leaders. The craftsman stopped working for himself at home and went to work in factories for wages. For more than a half-century after this happened, his working conditions were distressing — hours of labor were long and wages were low.

Then came the organization of labor unions and the fight for better conditions. The invention of new machines made it possible to produce food, shelter, and clothing with a small amount of human labor. Hours of labor steadily decreased, and wages rose, even slightly more than the cost of living. Health conditions in factories improved. Population grew by leaps and bounds. People left the farms and villages and crowded together in growing towns and cities.

Then came the World War, and the industrial, commercial, and cultural revolution went on. The new civilization changed even more rapidly than ever. America's national wealth and national income rose to new heights. Great corporations established more research laboratories. Tens of thousands of inventions were made. New machines, new attachments, more scientific ways of carrying on factory work, the use of efficient electrical power in place of wasteful steam power; more humane and more efficient ways of handling workers — these and other factors produced an ever changing way of living.

HOW DO THE GOOD EFFECTS AND THE EVIL EFFECTS OF OUR INDUSTRIAL CIVILIZATION BALANCE?

1. Effects that are good

Our new civilization has already produced certain conditions which are seriously affecting the happiness of human beings. Some of these effects are good; some, on the contrary, cause serious problems for us to solve. In concluding this present study of the history of our country's economic development we should summarize the gains and briefly state the problems.

First, the gains:

1. *A better physical standard of living for most people.* It cannot be questioned that the vast majority of human beings who live in America today have much more healthful, safer, and more attractive houses than their forefathers on the earlier frontiers or in the pioneer towns and cities of the new America. From the brief study that you have already made in *Changing Civilizations in the Modern World* you know that the physical standard of living of Americans today is superior to that of other nations, vastly superior to most of them. Living conditions are more healthful and safer; hours of work are less; recreations are more varied.

2. *Length of life has greatly increased and physical pain has decreased.* We have achieved another great physical gain — human beings live longer and are freer from physical pain and fatigue than they were in earlier times or are today in most other civilizations. The average length of life in America today is approximately 60 years. In the more backward civilizations of the world it is *less than 30 years.* Illness and pain have been reduced to a minimum by the astonishing developments of medical science. Mechanical safeguards of life have been produced. Whether they have kept pace with the increasing multiplication of physical dangers cannot be proved. Many students of the matter believe that they have.

3. *Hours of labor for most people have been sharply reduced.* Many persons now living were formerly employed in factories, mills, and mines with working days of eleven and twelve hours. Yet the average working day in all urban occupations today is

eight hours. It is undoubted that the Industrial Revolution has produced marked increases in leisure for the mass of the people. The industrial engineers now predict the early coming of the 25-hour to 30-hour working week.

4. *As hours of leisure have increased, a great variety of leisure occupations has developed.* The movement of life has speeded up and varied recreations have come within the reach of the rank and file of the people. The radio and the moving picture are bringing the thrilling and the dramatic, the fine and the beautiful, within the enjoyment and understanding of tens of millions of human beings. The lives of these persons were hitherto much more monotonous, their horizon was restricted, their knowledge of the modern world was very limited. A hundred distant cities, the south pole, the interior of Africa, the heart of Borneo — indeed, all the ends of the earth are now brought to the American people through the radio or the "movie."

5. *Knowledge through universal education is slowly supplanting ignorance and superstition.* The modern world is rapidly becoming literate. The rank and file of peoples not only in America, but in other industrialized countries, are learning to read. As a result, blind superstition is very slowly giving way to knowledge. People who formerly knew nothing more of the world than could be seen at first hand on the manor, in the town, or in the immediate neighborhood, now get glimpses at least of the mode and the meaning of life in the six continents of the earth and in scores of widely differing civilizations and cultures. So much have universal elementary education, the motion picture, the radio, and low-priced magazines and books already begun to do for us.

6. *Physical slavery — even economic slavery — is steadily disappearing.* We have seen how the scientific and industrial revolution was paralleled by the widespread movement for democracy in American and in other Western countries. After 200 years Negro slavery was abolished in America. During the same period what amounted to the practical slavery of certain white people was ended in Europe.

7. *Coöperation between the nations of the earth appears to be growing.* Since the World War closed, there have been many signs that the modern nations are recognizing their dependence

upon one another. The World War taught us how life can be ruined for tens of millions of human beings, if transportation, communication, trade, and finance are allowed to break down. Business men are already taking steps to try to avoid a repetition of that disaster. One way is by getting together in international corporations. In 1929 there were more than twenty great organizations for the basic industries owned jointly by German, French, British, Belgian, American, and other business men. Many other examples — such as the League of Nations — reveal the ways in which nations are coöperating to solve the problem of politics and social life. These coöperative measures are already bringing about steady improvement in health, — for example, in backward regions. Yellow fever, the hookworm, malaria, the opium traffic, are only a few of many important evils that are now disappearing under the coöperative efforts of nations.

Here, then, are important gains achieved by our new industrial civilization.

2. Difficult problems presented by our rapidly changing civilization

How do the gains, which we have just considered, balance with the difficult problems of our civilization?

1. *The increasing difficulty of finding work.* We have noted the distressing increase in unemployment since the World War. It appears that the invention of new machines is throwing people out of work more rapidly than new jobs can be created for them. It is true that this has happened in every decade since the invention of the first machines in the 1700's. But the problem is made more serious for us today because inventions are coming so swiftly and in such great numbers. The spending of millions of dollars each year on industrial research is reducing the cost of production and piling up huge amounts of goods. Is it really a gain for civilization, however, if it throws millions of human beings out of work? This problem we shall consider carefully in our later studies in the high school.

2. *Our interdependent society is exceedingly fragile.* Throughout all the books of this series we have stressed this factor. Today one person depends upon another. One industry depends upon another.

One community depends upon many others. Each region depends upon other regions. No nation can live to itself alone. The whole world is interdependent, tied together as a unit. The World War showed the danger of smashing the interdependent system of transportation, trade, communication, and finance which Europe had set up. Educators, engineers, and statesmen are beginning to recognize the serious danger of letting this interdependent society break down. In later studies we shall note the ways in which they are trying to protect our civilization against disaster.

3. *The very rapid multiplication of human wants.* We have seen that the development of machines, concentrated capital, mass production, and scientific research was paralleled by the development of skillful methods of salesmanship. "High power" advertising and the multiplicity of attractive things with which people are surrounded lure them to buy more things than they can afford. Hence the development of serious problems of living on credit, of making the future pay for the present, a tendency which has grown rapidly in individual and community living in America.

4. *The unequal division of the national income among the people.* As we continue our studies, we shall consider this difficult problem. Even today there is enough wealth in America to provide a fairly comfortable standard of living for all. As the Industrial Revolution advances throughout your lifetime this will be increasingly true. Hence we must learn to study scientifically this problem of guaranteeing even the lowliest among us a good standard of living.

5. *The difficulty the farmer experiences in his effort to get a fair share of the national income.* With prosperity advancing and production of things increasing, the farmer is steadily losing ground, while the city worker is gaining. Here is a problem for our economic engineers and students of social relations: how shall we distribute the social income so that the farmer, upon whom we depend for food, shall receive his just share of the wealth and earnings of the people?

6. *The startling growth of cities and the need for city-planning.* Already our largest cities face serious problems of congestion caused by too rapid growth and lack of planning for the future. In later studies we shall consider the manner in which cities are

now being carefully designed. We shall see how city engineers and architects study their problems scientifically, — for example, in the designing of business and industrial districts, in the provision of wide and well-arranged streets, parks, and playgrounds, and in the designing of urban buildings with respect to the needs of population and the arrangement of land space around them.

7. *Serious problems of crime, especially in our largest cities.* Accompanying the invention of the automobile and the rapid growth of metropolitan districts, crime has mounted in ever widening proportions. The proportion of crime in well-to-do America far exceeds that in any other country of the world. Herein lies a serious problem for the student of law, for the courts, and for communities. We shall study it carefully in Volume V.

8. *Serious dangers to American homes.* Since the World War many women have entered industry or have become wage-earners in business. Increasing numbers are acquiring a college education and going into the professions. Such developments, together with the widespread use of the automobile and the startling growth of cities, have already produced important changes in American homes. Elders and youth alike spend less time in the home and more time in hurried outside recreations. Some students think there is clear evidence of a serious problem in the changing American home. These problems must also be studied in later phases of our work if we are really to understand American life.

9. *Difficult problems of immigration.* We still continue to admit annually to the United States several hundred thousand European immigrants, and in addition many thousands of others who cross our borders illegally. Here are more problems for the scientific students. How shall we take into American life what these immigrants offer us from Old World civilizations? How shall we also Americanize them — develop in them a feeling for the spirit, opportunities, and responsibility of the new America?

10. *The increasing indifference of the average citizen to matters of government.* As our towns and cities have grown, fewer eligible voters have cast their ballots in local, state, and national elections. In our larger cities the average citizen is unacquainted with his representatives in the councils, boards of aldermen, and other legislative and executive branches of the government.

Increasingly, citizens are bewildered by the complexity of governmental machinery and correspondingly lose interest in it. How shall these important problems be understood and solved?

11. *Lack of interest among the American people in world affairs.* Since the World War, with the refusal of America to enter the League of Nations and with other similar occurrences, it is becoming increasingly clear that many Americans have little interest in current events and conditions in other parts of the world. Nevertheless, the entire modern world is one great economic family, each part dependent upon the others. Our students of international affairs are trying to apply their scientific ways of thinking to these problems. One of our tasks, therefore, will be to consider how a vital interest in world affairs can be aroused in our people.

12. *The increasing restlessness of the American people.* We have already seen signs of the manner in which the automobile and other outstanding factors in our industrial civilization have speeded up life in America. There is a growing air of hurry, of rushing about. Millions of people are spending their leisure hours in automobiles, in the "movies," in listening to one snatch after another over the radio, and the like. Scientists warn us that nervous tension among the people may be increasing. Here, then, is another important problem for scientific study.

13. *Is modern civilization tending to make the people act alike and think alike?* The same news is printed in the newspapers of all parts of the country at the same hours. The same voices, words, and music are transmitted over the radio to 30,000,000 listeners. The same books are read and the same opinions uttered in communities remote from one another. Does this represent a growing danger of the standardization of our people — of making them too much alike? This too is a question which we must take up in our later studies.

14. *The growing commercialism of sports, the theater, and the arts.* These cultural activities are organized and carried on in ways much like those of mass production in industry. Numbers, size, cost, are emphasized, not the excellence of the game, the ability of the players, the sportsmanship of the contestants, the artistic qualities of the performers. In our high-school studies we shall

ask if there is not a grave need for freeing the art life and the sport life of our country from commercial influences. Here too is a difficult problem for us to think about if we are to understand American culture.

15. *Important problems of reconstructing education to keep pace with our changing American civilization.* In times past, and too much in the present, education has had little to do with the life which young people are living. In our later high-school work we shall study the development of education in America — how until recently it had little to do with the life of most of the people, and how it was only after 1910 that the schools began to deal definitely with the civilization of our country.

16. *How shall we train our people for the wise use of their increasing leisure time?* Our studies show us clearly that hours of labor are lessening, and industrial engineers predict still shorter working weeks. Already students of American life are asking, "How will our people use their leisure time?" How, then, can we educate people generally, so that they can obtain more appreciation of fine and beautiful things in the increasing leisure which they will have in the future? These questions too we shall consider in our subsequent studies.

These, then, are some of the chief problems which our new civilization is creating for us. These will be the basis of our thinking in subsequent volumes of this series.

Each of these problems has a history. This history will be taken up in Volume IV, *A History of American Government and Culture.* There we shall study America's "March toward Democracy." We shall note how the American experimented with new ways of governing people. We shall study the close relation of problems of government to the settlement of the frontier, to the rise of manufacturing cities and towns, to the growth of foreign trade, and the like. In short, we shall note the relation of political and economic life.

Finally, we shall study again the development of social life and the culture of the American people.

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